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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1900.

The Week.

President McKinley has let it be known that he is "especially pleased" with Senator Hoar's attitude in this campaign, and that he thinks the Senator's Concord speech quite the quintessence of eloquence and wisdom. This is the speech in which Mr. Hoar declared that he had nothing to take back of what he had said about McKinley's Philippine policy. That is to say, he still considers it, as he described it in his Senate speech, "a policy of ruffianism," in violation of our laws and Constitution and dearest traditions. Yet for the beloved author of this policy Senator Hoar means to speak and work, and he hopes that, after the President has been rebuked by being triumphantly re-elected, he will repent him of the evil which he hath done, and give the Filipinos their independence. This benevolent innocence naturally "pleases" the President; the effect on others is to excite smiles, if not laughter. Secretary Long, for his part, rather cruelly writes of Senator Hoar's fears about the Constitution, and his dread lest we have vassals and serfs, that they are "ridiculous," and refers to his fellow-citizen of Massachusetts as an "honest but timid soul." This, too, may please Mr. McKinley, but we do not see how it can appear amusing to Senator Hoar.

The Senator persists in telling the truth about the mistaken course of the Administration toward the Philippines. In a speech at Northampton, Mass., the other evening he discussed this question very frankly, beginning with the remark that "I propose to take the bull squarely by the horns," and proceeding as follows:

> "I differ from the President and many of my friends. I think a great mistake has been made by the country and the Republican party. When now they say to me that the Philippine Islands are ours, I must say that the Philippine Islands belong to the Philippine people. I say that the people are entitled to such a government as they desire. When anybody tells me that you should not haul down the American flag, I say that you have just hauled it down in Pekin, and that you are going to haul it down in Cuba. There is one thing more sacred than the flag, and that is the sacramental wine, emblematic of the blood shed for mankind; and the man who would use the American flag in order to retain possession of a land and its people would for the same reason use the sacramental wine for a debauch."

Mr. Hoar went on to say that he considered the men who had thought otherwise in this matter as conscientious and desirous of doing their duty as himself, and, of course, he could find in the conduct of the Administration no reason for refusing Mr. McKinley his hearty support. But the Senator's reaffirmation of his opposition to the Imperialistic policy inspires the hope that he will continue his fight against it in the next Congress, while the fact that the passage above quoted drew "great applause" from a Republican meeting, shows that he will have plenty of support in such action from his constituents.

Gov. Roosevelt continued to the end of his Western campaign flinging his Philippine learning about profusely. He brought out again in Ohio on the 16th inst. his dear little "tribe" theory of the situation. Did his hearers know that there were eighty tribes in the Philippines? Only two of them are "against us." Think, then, of the absurdity of sacrificing seventy-eight tribes to two! But Roosevelt's friend, Professor Worcester of the Philippine Commission, threw a good deal of light in advance upon this absurdity, as if for the Governor's special discomfiture. In his book on the Philippines he says, referring to the number of the tribes, that it is easy to fall into "an exaggerated idea of their importance," since "many of them are numerically insignificant." Professor Worcester proceeds to say that it is with "the five millions of civilized natives" that we must chiefly reckon, and adds that "they belong for the most part to three tribes, the Tagalogs, Ilocanos, and Visayans." And it is two of these three tribes which Roosevelt admits are against us! "Only two," he says. This is much as if he should say of Switzerland, only the German and French elements are against us, and should boast that the 9 per cent. of Italians are for us. Gov. Roosevelt might as glibly say, only the Germans and Hungarians of Austria are against us, and the Poles for us. Against all his furious ignorance on the subject of the Philippines, we have only to set the calm words of Professor Worcester, written before any thought of trouble: "I think that the civilized natives show sufficient homogeneity to be treated as a class."

Monday's dispatches from Manila refer to the active investigation by the Taft Commission of the Friar question. The evidence obtained indicates the firm purpose of the Friars to hold their ground, and the determination of the Filipinos to get rid of them. For the time being, the politics of the Philippine question are dominant in the American view of the situation. No opportunity is lost by the supporters of the Administration to quote anybody and everybody, from clerks and enlisted men upward, who will say that the defeat of Mr. Bryan will be promptly followed by the collapse of Filipino resistance. The determination of the election will eliminate this purely political factor, and all thoughtful American people will then see that the Filipino struggle is the outcome of a deeply seated purpose. Again and again within the present century have the Filipinos risen in protest against their obnoxious and oppressive ecclesiastical system. Unbiassed observers fail to see wherein the election of Mr. McKinley as President of the United States will serve as a perfect substitute for that which the Filipinos have so long desired, and for which they have fought so many times. Some day it will be seen that for every acceptable secular priest of the Roman Catholic Church established in Philippine parishes, an American garrison may be withdrawn, and that for every hated Dominican, Franciscan, or Augustinian who may be returned to his parish, reinforcements will be needed. Some day it will be realized that, while the recent papal endorsement of the present policy in the Philippines may secure Catholic votes for Mr. McKinley, it will prove more effective in prolonging resistance to American rule than will all the arguments of the Anti-Imperialists. So, too, will the peregrinations of Archbishop Chapelle, in company with members of the hated orders, do more to encourage the Filipinos in their resistance than will all the utterances of William J. Bryan.

Senator Tillman of South Carolina has been on the stump out West, and has spoken with his customary honesty and recklessness as to the effect of what he says. He is the man who read the "consent-of-the-governed" plank in the platform with so much unction at Kansas City last July. Now he tells the people of the North how intolerable the people of the South found the application of this principle. Speaking of the rule by the negro majority, he said that the whites stood it eight years, then "rose up as brave men and overthrew it," and, as part of the process, "we stuffed the ballot-boxes, and shot them." He proceeded as follows:

> "What was this in comparison with the ''coon' government which we had been suffering, by which we were at the mercy of the negroes, who did not know enough to go to the market-place and back? In our county the negro majority was 2,000, and we beat them by only 3,800 votes. The conditions demanded it of us. Now make the most of it. Are we to allow you people of the North, with your fanaticism on the subject, to make us submit to that which degrades us to the plane of mongrels? No, we'll see you in hell first."

John Sherman's title to fame will rest upon his leadership in the resumption of specie payments after the civil war. The

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historian must always rank this as one of the greatest achievements in national finance since the establishment of the Federal Government. Mr. Sherman enjoyed the extraordinarily good fortune not only of carrying through Congress the act providing for resumption, but also of putting that act into operation as Secretary of the Treasury. When, in the winter of 1874-'75, the most influential Republicans in both branches of Congress became convinced that some explicit provision must be made for the resumption of specie payments at a fixed date in the future, Mr. Sherman took the lead at the first conference which was held to consider the subject, and was made Chairman of the committee of eleven Senators which was appointed to formulate a bill. At the first meeting of this committee the divergence of opinion was so great that an agreement seemed almost impossible. After other differences had been composed, a rock still remained upon which the party appeared likely to split—the question whether United States notes which should be presented for redemption and redeemed could be reissued. Mr. Sherman finally solved this difficulty by a device characteristic of his nature and his political methods. It was agreed by the committee that he should report the bill without making any mention of the reissue of notes, and without committing either side; and he carried it through the Senate without breaking silence on this vital point. It was a piece of evasion, but the situation was so desperate that such evasion was considered essential. As Secretary of the Treasury, however, Mr. Sherman did not shirk any responsibility in carrying out the act, and the measures which he successfully pursued to this end need no excuse or defence. After criticism has said all that justly may be said of some steps taken in the path to resumption, the salient fact remains that he devised, carried through Congress, and executed what must be considered on the whole the most important financial act since the days of Alexander Hamilton. The achievement of specie payments will always preserve his fame.

Three conspicuous and even painful instances of vacillation must be recalled. When, after the close of the civil war, a hue and cry was raised for paying the bonds with greenbacks, he bent before the storm and wrote a letter virtually endorsing that destructive policy. When the Bland Silver Bill was pending in Congress in 1877, he, being then Secretary of the Treasury, expressed the opinion to the Senate Committee on Finance that a silver coinage act would be an aid to the resumption of specie payments, and it was reported soon afterwards that, as a member of President Hayes's Cabinet, he advised against the veto of the act. His share in the passage of the Silver Act of 1890 is still well remembered. That futile and ill-starred measure carried its own punishment, since it has passed into history bearing his name.

The death of William L. Wilson is a sad loss to the country. He was the best type of "the scholar in politics" that we have had in recent years, his service in Congress and in the Cabinet having been in every way most creditable to himself and inspiring as an example to others. The part which he took as Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means and leader of the House, in securing the repeal of the Sherman Silver Act in 1893, will give him a paramount place in the country's history. As a public man who had returned to the academic pursuits which he abandoned for a few years, he should long have been, as President of a university, a commanding figure in the development of high ideals among our educated youth.

The sudden death of Charles Dudley Warner removes a notable figure in American letters. His was a striking instance of a consistent literary career reaching a perfectly normal and legitimate success. Warner was a fore-ordained man of letters. The best magazines were already open to him as an undergraduate, and with few interruptions he wrote successfully from the point of view of art, and profitably from that of gain, to his death. General recognition came to him in early middle life, after which period he gradually built up the high reputation which he came to have. Whatever recognition he obtained was gained in his quality of man of letters. He allied himself with no "movements" or passing fads, and there have been made in our time few reputations so genuinely literary. Personally interested in all good causes, charitable, as the very manner of his death showed, he preferred the writer's fame to any other. In his broad culture and ready assimilation of whatever was admirable in foreign life and letters, he recalls his illustrious predecessor, Washington Irving; in his strong local attachments and in his activity as humorist, novelist, and social philosopher, he ran a parallel course with his older contemporary Holmes. That his eventual place in American letters will be a little lower than theirs it would be safe to predict—safe also to predict that the author of 'Being a Boy' and 'The Golden House' will not lightly be forgotten.

A patent upon an article, according to Judge Adams of the United States Circuit Court, does not constitute a Trust, nor does the Anti-Trust Law forbid a patentee to regulate the price of an article patented. In granting privileges to an inventor, the Court rules, the Government intends that he shall for a term of years enjoy a monopoly of the thing produced by his brain, and shall take all the profit arising from it. The case brought before Judge Adams, however, in which this decision was rendered, was complicated by the fact that the right to use a certain patent had been sold to two companies, manufacturers of stoves, which were under contract to meet once a year to regulate the price of stoves in which the patent was used. One of the companies undertook to disregard the contract on the ground that any combination to regulate the price of an article was illegal. On this point the Court ruled that the companies to which the right to use the patent had been sold must be regarded as one person, and that they enjoyed all the privileges enjoyed originally by the patentee. The Judge added that, if persons owning several individual patents similar to each other, were to combine for the purpose of regulating prices, they would commit a breach of law.

The Anglo-German agreement in all that concerns the final settlement in China is easily the most important step yet taken by diplomacy in the whole tangled affair. Lord Salisbury does not appear to have been so soundly asleep, after all. As the far-sighted Anglo-German agreement of 1898 may be said to have determined the political future of Africa, so this new one may be decisive in China. If Germany and England pledge themselves to maintain the territorial integrity of the Chinese Empire, and practically serve notice on other Powers that none of them will be allowed to take selfish advantage of the present complications, it is certain that we shall not see that dismemberment of China for which so many have been clamoring. The United States can but adhere gladly and instantly to this Anglo-German policy. A restored China, open to the trade of the world, is what we have wanted and all we want. Nor is Russia likely to interpose any overt objection. Her "espérances ultérieures" are in a fair way to be gratified in Mantchuria and the Liao-Tung peninsula, by the sole process of time. Lord Salisbury has already acknowledged the reasonableness of her ambitions in those regions, and cannot now mean to block them. Japan, too, is almost certain to be satisfied with the new arrangement; and the other Powers will have to be. Of course, the immediate future in China is not cleared by this Anglo-German alliance. It looks, rather, to an ultimate settlement after the present troubles are adjusted. But so far-reaching an announcement of distant plans will be an enormous help in disposing of the questions which lie nearest at hand.

The German Emperor changes Chancellors with no more to-do than he does

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uniforms; and an event that naturally should have aroused the keen interest of the German people and put all the Chancelleries of Europe on the alert, passes almost without comment, so convinced is everybody that the Emperor intends to be his own Chancellor. Of course the absolutism of the Kaiser is generally admitted, but it should not escape remark that the new Chancellor, Von Bülow, may well strengthen his master's hands. As Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Von Bülow was fully in the tradition of the "New Diplomacy." Aggressive towards England, repressive in the matter of the Belgian-Chinese Legion, he is fully in accord with the Emperor's policy in China, and for the future we may expect to find Germany even more prominent in international politics than heretofore.

Though the Germans generally accept the absolutism of the Emperor, there are signs of revolt against the constant prosecutions for lèse-majesté. A case in point is that of Harden, editor of the *Zukunft*, who has commented on the Kaiser's inspired utterances in a spirit of irreverence. The unlucky man was out only a few months from a six months' incarceration for such an offence when the Kaiser made the "no quarter" speech to the troops who were leaving for China. Another six months of fortress life stared Harden in the face, but he could not withhold the "Attila" article that fitly named the Kaiser's oration. A trial in camera, another six months of fortress, the destruction of the *Zukunft* which contained the offending article, were Herr Harden's portion. This roused the protest even of the official organ itself. Recounting the numerous condemnations of poor workmen, including one deaf and dumb man, for having their fling at the Emperor, the *Vossische Zeitung* regretted particularly that the Harden case had been tried behind closed doors; and observed that the *Majestäts-Beleidigung* business was being so overdone as to win for the Emperor ridicule rather than respect. It is, indeed, hard to see why a ruler who has all the facts of power should show a parvenu sensitiveness which leads him to compel respect by process of law. But that is Wilhelm II. "all over."

On all hands the Conservative victory in England is accepted as Mr. Chamberlain's personal triumph. He made the South African war, he dissolved Parliament in the nick of time to get a vote while the war sentiment was still strong, and he has now got his overwhelming endorsement. Yet it is accompanied by renewed and virulent attacks upon his personal character, such as have been directed against no English statesman of his prominence in this century. One charge relates to the financial interest which his immediate family has in Government contracts. There is a confessed want of delicacy in this, though no one accuses Mr. Chamberlain of personally profiting. Indeed, he could not legally, as an Act of George III. provides that no member of the House of Commons may share in any contract with the Government, or derive benefit therefrom. But it certainly is not pleasant to see the Chamberlain family figuring as the majority stockholders in companies that furnish army and navy supplies—a Jingo indelicacy.

More serious is the allegation, openly made by responsible men, that Mr. Chamberlain was blackmailed into making his famous speech in praise of Cecil Rhodes's "honor," after he had signed a report condemning that gentleman-pirate in the severest terms. Mr. Philip Stanhope offers to prove in a court of law that Mr. Chamberlain whitewashed Rhodes under duress; that a member of Parliament stood by with letters in his pocket, implicating Chamberlain in the Jameson raid; and that the threat had been made to read these letters out unless the Colonial Secretary gave Rhodes a clean bill of health. All this Mr. Chamberlain has angrily, though rather vaguely, denied; but there stands the offer of his responsible accusers to prove the truth of their libel. The *Spectator* characteristically hopes that Mr. Chamberlain will not accept Mr. Stanhope's challenge, since such things "do harm to our public life," and "poison the political atmosphere"! The truth or falsity of the charge is, of course, a secondary consideration.

Mr. Bryce's return from South Aberdeen, though by a reduced majority, is, like John Morley's from Montrose, a proof that the Scotch have not ceased to honor intellectual eminence. The success of these two Liberals, both strong opponents of Chamberlain and of his fire-brand diplomacy, is the more notable in view of the fact that Scotland, as a whole, swung from her Liberal moorings in the last election. A comic incident of Mr. Bryce's canvass was the use against him of G. W. Smalley's ferocious and unfounded attacks upon him in letters and telegrams from New York to the London *Times*. You see, gravely said the Tory agents, this "great American authority" discredits your member, says that the Americans have found him out, and that his attitude on the Boer question alienated from him all sympathy in the United States. This was a good joke, though the serious side of it comes in when we think of the London *Times* lending itself to the airing of grudges in the guise of news. But for its name and prestige, a surgical operation would have been necessary to get it into the heads of Scotchmen that Mr. Smalley is entitled to speak for American opinion of Mr. Bryce. Of that gentleman it is little to say that his public utterances about the South African war have but confirmed his friends in this country in their belief that he is, as Dr. James Martineau wrote of him years ago, "marked out for eminence within our small class of true statesmen."

In opposing the appointment of Gen. Weyler as Captain-General of Madrid, disaffected members of the Silvela Cabinet merely grasped at the first pretext. A change of Ministry was inevitable; for in the twenty months of its administration the Government had set before itself a policy of violent reaction which could end only in disaster. It is a question whether in any case the Cabinet would have dared to present its own programme to the Cortes, which meets in November. The restriction of trial by jury (in particular the assignment to military courts of libel cases where the army is aggrieved), repression of all liberal movements, whether in politics or in education, a return to the ruinous policy of naval and military expansion—these were some of the ambitious plans of the Silvela Ministry. Upon them, in the face of Liberal and Socialistic opposition and the revival even of Carlist agitation, the Government must have failed. Señor Silvela was, morally, receiver for a state in economic and political distress. It was clearly his duty to take account of stock and liquidate old obligations before incurring new. Failure to realize this duty was rapidly undermining him when the Weyler incident turned up to justify a timely retreat.

That blood is thicker than politics is shown by the enthusiastic response of the South and Central American republics to the call for an Ibero-American Congress soon to assemble at Madrid. It is as if Spain had chosen the time when, her American possessions gone, she could appeal with entire disinterestedness to the bond of race, and reassert the more strikingly her moral and intellectual leadership over the Latin-American nations. The movement should inspire rather sympathy than distrust among us. Commerce is doing the work of Americanizing the Latin republics steadily and irrevocably. It would be a distinct misfortune if the change should mean their denial of the tradition of culture under which they have grown. In Europe there is just complaint of the little Parises that spring up everywhere. And South America would be the loser if, in running to little New Yorks, Liverpools, and Hamburgs, she forgot the racial tradition by virtue of which she is herself, and not the United States, England, or Germany. Should it be said that Spain was at best only a stepmother to these republics, so much the more praiseworthy the loyal instinct that calls their delegates to Madrid.

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BRYAN AND REPUBLICANISM.

We have just seen Mr. Bryan at short range in New York, and no one can longer doubt what manner of man he is. Lord Eldon said in his old age, "If I had to begin life over again, hang me but I would be an agitator." Bryan will never need to express such a regret. He is the boldest, most adroit, and one of the least scrupulous agitators that this country has ever seen on the national stage. He is willing to become all things to all men if by any means he may win votes. For a time he essayed the dignified rôle of statesman, and showed his astonishing versatility as well as mental gifts in his brilliant and powerful Indianapolis speech of acceptance. But he could not stop with that. The shouting of the crowd sounded in the ears of his imagination, and would not let him rest at home. Against all advice, he began again his meteor-flights over the country, displaying once more the physical strength of ten men, and a ready resource and rough force of appeal to prejudice and passion which would have left Danton himself agape with envy.

Why is there any apprehension today regarding his success? Why are business men compelled to take the possibility of Bryan's election into their plans for the future? It cannot be that the American character has suddenly changed. With all its vagaries, democracy has always preferred for its highest honors strong, cool, dignified, steady, and safe men. Why should there be any fear that a reckless stump-speaker, an adept in knock-down argument, a stirrer-up of social hatreds, should now command a majority of the suffrages of the American people? Let alarmed Republicans give their minds to this question. If they do it seriously and honestly, they will be compelled to acknowledge that the only weapons which are dangerous in Bryan's hands were placed there by the men who have moulded Republican policy during the four years past. If Bryanism is a firebrand, it is Republicanism which has set it aflame.

What are the two charges against the Republican party which Bryan presses with the most successful iteration? First, that it has allowed organized and unscrupulous wealth to sway the policy of the general government; second, that it has denied, on a gigantic scale, the fundamental rights of human liberty. Do not, impatient Republican reader, cry out that this is all calumnious nonsense. Pause a moment, and reflect on the amount of truth there is to put the edge on Bryan's charges. Have you forgotten those letters demanding Government favors in return for campaign contributions to the Republican party? Is it to be supposed that such revelations could fail to wake suspicions in the popular mind? Will not people say that, if a few letters, accidentally published, showed such an attitude in men having close relations with the Republican leaders, the whole truth, if known, would confirm Bryan in asserting that Republicanism now means selling legislation for cash? It was not a Democrat, but a stalwart Republican of the old school, who said bitterly in a Congressional committee-room, "You do not understand the situation. We are in the hands of a syndicate." And it is not a raging domestic demagogue, but a clear-sighted and well-informed foreigner, Mr. Goldwin Smith, who declares that, to his mind, the main issue of our Presidential campaign is "that between Imperialist Plutocracy and the American Commonwealth." We cannot dismiss this as idle vaporing. Burke said that the local view of politics was always fifty years behind the times—meaning that we cannot properly estimate the forces at work until a half-century has passed. But intelligent contemporary opinion of foreigners is the verdict of posterity; and we must not be so contemptuously incredulous as to Bryan's wild and whirling words, when we find an observer of Goldwin Smith's capacity asserting that there is an element of truth in his most railing accusation. If Bryan's open appeal to the jealousies and blind rage of the poor has any unusual force, it is because the Republican party has too openly sold itself for campaign contributions.

And what a lamentable thing it is for the Republicans to be compelled to be evasive or dumb when this rough Orson of politics charges them with trampling upon the rights of man! His words bite because they are, in substance, true. The Republican party—the party of freedom, of enfranchisement, of equal rights for white or black—this is the party that has to stand by, silent and shamefaced, while this rude Democrat from the West indicts it for high crimes and misdemeanors against liberty! You may sneer at the sincerity of the rabble prating about liberty and independence. But if our élite, our educated men, our party of intelligence, abdicate, are we not bound to rejoice that even demagogues and the unthinking masses take up the cause of human freedom and the rights of the oppressed? John Morley once drew an awful picture of the recreancy of the gentlemen of England to the sacred principles of English liberty, which, he said, had been kept alive by the despised lower classes. If our intelligent classes are ready to go over to an acquiescence in the new American slavery, we, for our part, shall openly be glad that the ignorant, the envious, the dangerous classes, if you choose, are lifting their voices in protest. And the time will come, after election, when Republicans will call to a severe accounting those leaders who have betrayed the party into its present false position, and have made possible the portent of a Bryan.

MR. BRYAN ON TRUSTS.

Mr. Bryan, in his speech at Madison Square Garden, discussed the Trust question more at length than he has done in any other speech during the campaign, though less fully, perhaps, than in his speech at the Chicago Conference of last year. The remedy he proposed for the evils which he finds in Trusts was the same in both. He suggests that a corporation which acquires, or seeks to acquire, a monopoly of the supply of an article of commerce, shall not be permitted to do business in any State except the one in which it is incorporated, without a license from the Government of the United States; and before that license is granted, he says, "we propose that the water shall be squeezed out of the stock, and the corporation shall show that it is not trying to monopolize any kind of business." He would also put on the free list of the tariff every Trust-made article.

Mr. Bryan's portrayal of the cruelties of monopoly was extremely pathetic, especially when he pictured the mother watching over the cradle of her child and hoping that he may have a fair chance in the world and may make the most of life's opportunities—a hope destined to be frustrated and brought to naught by the Trusts and monopolies that are growing up in every direction. That the Republicans are responsible for the Trusts and for all kinds of monopolies he affirmed as broadly as possible, saying that the President and his Attorney-General had neither enforced existing laws against Trusts nor recommended new ones, and that the party had sustained Mr. McKinley, and was about to vote for his reëlection, in spite of his dereliction. In order to make the contrast between himself and his opponent more impressive, he said that he was more concerned about the Trust question as a citizen than as a candidate, and more interested as the father of a family than as a Democrat.

This was, no doubt, very taking to the miscellaneous audience to whom it was addressed, but it must have stirred the risibles of the presiding officer of the Madison Square meeting. Not that Mr. Shepard has been the attorney of one or more Trusts, but because he is a man of a logical and legal mind, one who knows claptrap when he sees it, and has a profound contempt for it. It cannot be affirmed that the Republican party is more responsible for bringing Trusts into existence, nor for failing to put them out of existence, than the Democratic party. The earliest one (Standard Oil) was not in any sense political, nor was it based upon or helped by the tariff. The next one (Sugar) was started by men of Democratic antecedents. It would have been started either with or without the tariff. It is true that there are more Republicans than Democrats concerned in Trusts. That happens because there are more

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capitalists among Republicans than among Democrats. It is true also that many Trusts are protected by the tariff, and helped by it to maintain their respective monopolies. This artificial support ought to be taken from them, but it is fair to say that it was not given to them because they were Trusts. The tariff equally protects and helps industries that are not and cannot be organized as Trusts.

The Trusts did not have a political beginning, and they will not have a political end. They are an outgrowth of modern conditions of business, and they would have come just the same under any administration of the Government. An outgrowth may be good or bad, and we confess that this one is not at all to our liking. Evolution may be upward or downward, but if it is evolution, and is not the product of Governmental favor and interference, it should be treated like other products of evolution. The very first thing to be done is to look at it as it is, to form a true diagnosis, and then see whether Government has anything in its armory fitted to cope with it, so as to do more good than harm.

Mr. Bryan's proposed license does not seem to us either useful or practicable. A Trust, as Professor Clark says, is any business combination which is large enough to be dangerous. This definition applies to the Carnegie Steel Company and to the Armour Packing Company as completely as to the Standard Oil Trust or the Sugar Trust. Whether any of these is dangerous is a matter of opinion, but they are all in the same boat. Now suppose that the Carnegie Steel Company were required to take out a Federal license before it could sell steel rails outside of Pennsylvania. Then, under Mr. Bryan's plan, it would be required to do two things: first to squeeze all the water out of its stock, and second to prove that it is not aiming at a monopoly. As the latter is a requirement to prove a negative, it might be difficult. All that the officers of the company could say would be that they were trying to make and sell steel as cheaply as possible, and that their endeavors might lead to a monopoly or might not.

The Carnegie Company is not technically a Trust. There is no water in its stock, because it was not formed by combination with other companies. It simply grew up by prudent management under favoring conditions. There are other steel companies which are Trusts, and probably there is water in their composition. Now, under the Bryan plan the Carnegie Company would be entitled to a license (although it might not get one) and the other steel companies would not. So the result of the plan, in this case, would be to make the Carnegie Company a monopoly by giving it an exclusive privilege in interstate commerce, whereas it is not such now. But supposing that, in order to avoid this absurdity, licenses were refused to all of them, what would be the condition of the buyers and consumers of steel? What in like case would happen to the consumers of sugar if the Sugar Trust were refused a license to sell outside of New Jersey? Would not the Arbuckles then have a monopoly of the rest of the country?

PROSPERITY AND POLITICS.

Senator Hanna's speeches in the West have had for their burden the cry that prosperity is the one issue of the Presidential campaign. As a plain, blunt man, accustomed to buying and selling more than to oratory, he comes something short of ex-President Harrison's ability to see a "spiritual significance" in the full dinner-pail. If there are sufficient votes in it, that is all that Hanna wants. And there can be no doubt that, however coarse he may be in urging electors to vote as their stomachs dictate, he states truly the ultimate reliance of the Republican party in the pending contest. If times were bad, everybody knows it would be beaten. Glory, the Flag, Destiny, the Strenuous Life—none of these things could save it. Good business and good crops are its most effective stump-speakers.

In a general way, it may be laid down as a political rule that depressed trade or bad harvests always mean the defeat of a party in power. But is the converse true, and will good times infallibly enable a party to retain power? Here we have to take stock of our knowledge of human nature. Disgust and resentment are more powerful motives with political man than gratitude. Thus it is a fact, susceptible of historical proof, that while bad times invariably wreck a Government appealing to popular suffrage, good times do not necessarily save it. A cynical friend of ours has put the case as follows: "If my business is bad, I know it is wholly the fault of a wretchedly incompetent Government. Out with it! But if I am making money, I am conscious that my success is due entirely to my own industry and sagacity. It is pure impudence in the Government to claim any share of the credit." The Presidential election of 1892, when the country was greatly prosperous yet Harrison was turned out, is the instance most often cited in support of this contention.

But no careful observer of the present campaign can fail to see an important difference between the issue of prosperity, as presented in 1892, and as made prominent this year. Eight years ago warnings fell on deaf ears. The main reason was, we suppose, that the country had had an experience of prosperous Democratic rule, not so far back, and was not easily to be frightened. Now, however, the mental attitude is different. People have too acute a remembrance of the disastrous years 1893-95 not to be open to argument, even if fallacious argument, on the need of voting so as to continue present prosperity. No one can say how many votes will be influenced solely by this kind of appeal; but it seems undeniable that the number will be great. First voters—and there are to be 1,500,000 of them—will probably not be so easily wrought upon as those of longer memories; but inquiry and report seem to leave it beyond question that thousands of workingmen and farmers will vote for McKinley in the light of an earthly Providence. The President is, no doubt, prepared to see in his re-election a great and gratifying endorsement of all that he has done; but it is clear that, if citizens could eliminate his personality entirely, and vote an abstract ticket in favor of the gold standard and prosperity, the enthusiasm and the number of votes would be vastly greater.

It is an undoubted truth that McKinley's Imperialist policy is preventing his party from reaping the full political harvest of prosperity. For it has been historically true of Anglo-Saxon political life that a remnant at least has stood for moral considerations and the principles of liberty, even when the country was prospering under an immoral and tyrannical Government. There have always been lofty-minded men who, like Clarendon, have had a soul above "the prosperous *wickedness* of these times." And it was he, friend and supporter of Charles I. as he was, who could not refrain from pointing out that, while the King's illegal ship-money left England highly prosperous, there was, with "the outward visible prosperity," an "inward reserved disposition of the people to murmur and unquietness." If such were not the case, we might well despair of liberty.

One thing is certain: the Republicans who stake everything on the full dinner-pail to-day are placing a frightful mortgage on the future of their party. They may win now, but what can they hope for when a poor crop or business depression—and poor crops and business depression will come as surely as the revolving years—coincides with an important election? On their own showing, they will have no excuse, and cannot complain when the voters turn them out neck and crop. It will be of no use to preach submission to Providence then. It is McKinley, not Providence, who has brought prosperity, and it is McKinley and his party who will have to suffer in times of adversity. All this raw talk about prosperity directly tends, in fact, to cultivate in the American electorate a Chinese frame of mind. When Sir Henry Blake, Governor of Hong Kong, was in Pekin shortly before the outbreak, a mandarin said to him, "The Emperor has kotowed four or five times for rain, and no rain has come. What good is he or the Dowager Empress for the Empire?" Logic is logic; and we may yet see McKinley kotow-

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ing for a big wheat crop at high prices, and his party beaten if he does not get it.

DISTRUSTFUL CUBA.

"My fellow-countrymen, they are preparing to cheat you!" Such was the cry which fell from the lips of the veteran Cuban revolutionist, Gen Hernández, at the commemorative banquet given in Havana on October 10. It was the anniversary of the beginning of the first Cuban revolution—the "grito de Yara," as the Cubans fondly call it. Many of the survivors of that heroic struggle were present. For ten years they had fought for independence, a generation ago; again in 1895 they had renewed the unequal combat; now with independence at last solemnly promised them by the great and Christian nation which had intervened to help them throw off the Spanish yoke, one would expect to find them exultant. But in fact they were filled with despairing apprehension. Speaker after speaker avowed his distrust of the United States. Major Secades asked how they could celebrate the glorious 10th of October when a foreign flag floated above them with the "boastful air of being absolute master"? Gen. Castillo offered a toast to Cuban independence, "still so far away, and perhaps a tricky deception." The fiery Juan Gualberto Gómez warned the people to be ready for a "critical day" when it might be necessary to imitate the Boers and make their land a wilderness rather than let it become the home of slaves. Gen. Hernández, as we said, bluntly declared that the United States intended to cheat the Cubans.

What are Americans to think of all this? Is it a mere luxury of pessimism? What more would these ungrateful, these distrustful Cubans have? We drove Spain out of their island. We have maintained peace and order for nearly two years. We have set up native municipal governments. We have allowed the people to choose a Constitutional Convention, which is soon to meet to frame a scheme of independent government for Cuba. Is there not here every sign of good faith? How can these irreconcilable Cubans impugn our honorable purpose?

Well, we suppose the reason is that they look to our acts rather than to our words. One ground which the Cubans have for distrusting us is that they can see how we deceived and abused the Filipinos. Such things cannot be done in a corner. The native Cuban press has not failed to expound the ominous Philippine example. One trusting people bitterly disillusioned, as the Filipinos were, is, the Cubans say, a fine instance of the way the United States endeavors to "encourager les autres." Moreover, they have significant words of influential Americans to point to as well as meaning acts. Senator Beveridge brutally declares in Chicago that our promise of independence to Cuba was made in a moment of impulsive but mistaken generosity, and that, therefore, it will not be kept; his words are read with consternation in Santiago and Cienfuegos and Matanzas. It is true, then, exclaim the Cubans; the Americans mean to play the rogue. As if to remove all doubts, the chief American newspaper of Havana, the *Post*, which poses, with good reason, as the chosen organ of the American military government, hastened to assert that "Mr. Beveridge makes no mistake. Cuba is certain to come definitely under our permanent jurisdiction." Would not the Cubans be blind indeed if they saw no significance in all this?

Furthermore, the advance agents of American Imperialism are swarming to the island. To exploit land, mines, forests, public franchises—that is their one aim, and they cynically avow their expectation of being able to accomplish it under American sovereignty. There is just now a "Cuban Company" endeavoring, in spite of the Foraker law, to secure control of all the Cuban railways and to get the right of way for new ones. This company is, of course, an American syndicate, and the press of interior Cuba is warning the people to have nothing to do with it, since it is one of the agencies being used to rob them of independence. And this is but a sample of what is going on. Neely and Rathbone set the pace for American exploitation of Cuba; and the sad sincerity of greed in which they wrought is the prevailing spirit, to Cuban observation, of most of the Americans who come to their island looking for investments.

Ah, but the plighted word of this nation; the renewed and solemn pledges of the Republican platform and of President McKinley's letter of acceptance—is it not a gratuitous insult to us and to him for the Cubans to say that they do not believe we mean to do what we vow we will? Well, if they do not believe us, whose fault is it? We cannot appeal to a reputation for telling the truth after we have been caught lying. The Cubans have studied not alone our conduct in the Philippines, but our playing fast and loose with our word in Porto Rico. President McKinley has made no more binding promise to Cuba than he did to Porto Rico; if he broke one, why should he not the other? That is what the Cubans ask when they read what the President says about our "sacred guarantees" to Cuba. What, they sneer, cannot sacred guarantees be swallowed as easily as plain duty? Such a thing it is for a President to have destroyed confidence in his character, and so in the character of his country. It is painful for an American to read the flings of Cubans at American good faith, but what possible answer has he when taunted with an intention to cheat and deceive Cubans as Filipinos and Porto Ricans have been cheated and deceived?

For Cubans, the thing to do is to go on quietly with their Constitutional Convention. Whatever and however reasonable their doubts, it is for them to put us to the proof. We hope the members of the Convention will, in their first session, call upon President McKinley to annul his unprecedented and suspicious order to them to determine in their Constitution the relations between Cuba and the United States. He had no color of title to impose such a condition upon them, and they should resent and repudiate it at the first opportunity. Even if this just ground of fear is not removed, the Cubans should proceed to draw up the best scheme of independent government they can devise. Then let them throw the responsibility on us. Americans who believe in such a thing as national honor, and who are cut to the heart to see a stain upon it, will not stand idly by and see the President once more make us appear a faithless and godless nation. Whatever the popular majority behind McKinley, whatever the popular indifference to a new breach of trust, if it come, as it is evidently preparing, in Cuba, there will be Americans left to tell a party or a President drunk with Imperialism, as Machiavelli told the Italian Prince: "To betray one's friends, to be without faith, without mercy, without religion—those are perhaps ways of acquiring empire, but not glory."

THE COMING ARMY CRISIS.

Whatever the result of the Presidential election, it is already plain that no more pressing domestic question than that of the reorganization and increase of the regular army will present itself this winter to the Administration and to Congress. However much Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan may argue as to past Republican intentions in regard to the army, and however much Secretary Root may affirm that the question of an increase has not entered his head, the fact remains that some action must be taken by Congress if the Philippines are not to be practically abandoned. It is for Congress to decide in December whether the historic army policy of the United States is to be reversed, and whether or not our permanent land force shall be nearly four times what it was before the blowing up of the *Maine*. It may even be honestly asked if army officers are not correct who declare that 150,000 men must eventually be provided by Congress to keep our "conquered" Malays in a sufficiently pacified condition while the unsought benefits of Anglo-Saxon civilization are conferred upon them.

The necessity for legislative action this fall arises from the requirement of the army law of March 1, 1899, which provides that the present regular army of

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65,000 men shall shrink to its ante-bellum figure of 28,000 on July 1, 1901, and that the existing volunteer force of 35,000 men shall be disbanded on or before the same day. This was a compromise measure, many Republican Congressmen having even then proposed a standing army of 100,000 men, and having been forced to accept the substitute partly because of the opposition of some of their own party like Representative Loud of California. At the time of the passage of this law, Gen. Otis was cabling that no volunteers would be needed. As late as June 1, 1899, he continued to hold his utterly mistaken opinion that only "30,000 troops will be necessary for the effective control of the Philippines." To-day, sixteen months or more later, Gen. MacArthur finds that his army of 71,000 men, exclusive of some 2,000 marines at Cavité, is none too large to supply the constant demands for reinforcements made by his brigade commanders. The outlook for the speedy defeat and destruction of the "small portion" of the Filipinos reported in arms is, at this time, far less favorable than on August 12, 1899, when it was announced in Washington that "the President believes that Aguinaldo is making his last play, and that the war will be over by November 1 [1899]."

It is evident, therefore, that only the coming true of that cheerful campaign prediction that the Filipinos will give up dying for their cause on hearing that Mr. Bryan is defeated, will relieve the Administration of the necessity of having a large force in the Philippines to hold what territory has been won. No unbiassed student of the Filipinos, past and present, can believe that this will come to pass, and it must be noticed that Gen. MacArthur has not yet advanced this theory. If, as is alleged, the Filipinos are so fully informed as to what is going on in this country, they must have learned by this time that the American people will not be able to pass judgment at the coming election upon the Administration's course in the Philippines because of the menace of Bryanism and of free silver. They must know also that those Americans who have dared to stand up and protest against the wickedness of shooting down men whose only crime is their desire to govern themselves in their own way, will not abandon their efforts to create an overwhelming moral sentiment in favor of giving the Filipinos their independence without qualification.

But it is the necessity for the gradual withdrawal of the volunteer regiments, now scheduled to begin next month, which is the Administration's most threatening danger. As the Filipinos see town after town abandoned by the retiring garrisons, for which Gen. MacArthur will have no substitutes, it will be surprising indeed if they are not encouraged to fresh outbreaks, and made to believe the Americans defeated. The longer Congress debates the question of an army bill, the more will Gen. MacArthur's army be weakened before new regiments can be raised and transported to Manila, with the prospect perhaps of reconquering towns for which much blood has already been shed. It is hard, indeed, to see how any additional troops can be sent to Manila to bridge over this interim, since Gen. Wood still retains 5,500 men in Cuba, and the home garrisons have been reduced to 16,500 men, mostly artillery or fragments of regiments already in the Philippines. Nor will it be maintained that a Government which is preparing to force a Constitution upon an unwilling people will be exercising due foresight, according to the new diplomacy, if it deprives itself of the means to make the Cubans obey its will.

Many questions must come before Congress which will make a hasty decision as to the size and make-up of the new army difficult. The Ordnance Board's demand for 18,000 artillerymen to care for its costly forts and guns, which meets with Secretary Root's approval; the clamor for artillery and cavalry reorganization, in accordance with modern European methods; the crying need of an amalgamation of the line and staff, so bitterly fought over last winter; the need of more generals; the question of giving volunteer officers commissions in the new army; and, most important of all, the advisability of continuing the present makeshift army, partly regular and partly volunteer—these are but a few of the problems which must be properly solved if the reorganization is to be effective. Nor must it be forgotten that conflicting interests in the army itself create such difficulties that a joint board of line and staff officers to clear the way for some comprehensive plan has been suggested in many quarters.

However much those affected by these details may be interested in their working out, the public at large will be most concerned in the determination of the principles involved. Whether the standing force is to be greatly enlarged at this time, and, if so, whether such action is in accordance with the noblest traditions of American life and with the safety and welfare of the Republic, is the important point at issue which will be most discussed. The taxpayer will not forget that before the war the cost of his army of 28,000 men and his pension bill were together more than Germany's outlay for her great army of half a million. Nor should he be unmindful of the fact that on July 1, 1901, $650,000,000 will have been paid out as the price of the war with Spain and of the criminal aggression in the Philippine Islands. It was James Russell Lowell who said that the United States would endure "so long as the ideas of its founders continue dominant." They had no more dominant belief than that a standing army, other than for domestic police purposes, was a menace to the liberties of the people.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

History and literature, like elections and the weather, are always subjects to be discussed, but as the "silly season" is over, we should hardly select either of them for the text of a theoretical essay. There remains the relation between the two, a matter about which we are led to say something by the recent appearance of opinions which must not be overlooked. During the last Lent Term, Mr. J. H. Wylie delivered the Ford Lectures in the University of Oxford, speaking upon "The Council of Constance to the Death of John Hus." We shall criticise elsewhere the substance of these studies. At present we need only consider the brief *L'Envoi* in which Mr. Wylie explains his views concerning the composition of history and modern historical tendencies.

Three days after we received Mr. Wylie's lectures in their published form, Mr. Charles Francis Adams gave an inaugural address at the dedication of the building which the wisdom and generosity of Wisconsin have provided for the State Historical Society. The opening part of this address, which fifty years ago would have been justly called an oration, centred around the great issues of 1848, the year when Wisconsin entered the Union. The State was first given its place in the scheme of historical evolution, and then the orator passed on to the same topics which Mr. Wylie touched in his closing words at Oxford—the composition of history, and modern historical tendencies. However, it is not because these two judgments have reached us at one moment that we place them side by side. Mr. Wylie and Mr. Adams regard the same question from different standpoints, and the contrast of their views may well afford students and teachers of history a theme for meditation.

Like Matthew Arnold, Mr. Wylie is "one of her Majesty's inspectors of schools," but to the world he is best known by his learned and detailed 'History of England under Henry IV.' This work has been praised on all hands for its erudition, but it has also been censured by more than one reviewer for its over-minuteness and want of literary style. At Oxford Mr. Wylie took occasion to answer his critics in a very charming and witty manner. He begins by citing Bishop Stubbs, who "once said of his own work that the useful part of it was hard reading and the readable part 'trifling,' which would soon 'go the way of all fireworks.'" This is a pretty bold *argumentum ad hominem*, and Mr. Wylie proceeds: "But, after all, the style, the art that carries all by storm and wins along the whole line, is a God-given gift. Those who have it cannot fail to make it felt, while those who have it not would do well to make no effort to affect it."

Quite apart from his own confessed shortcomings, Mr. Wylie greatly prefers facts without style to style without learning. "We all know the old methods of the eighteenth century: character sketches and fancy portraits, Thucydidean in scope and drawn to display the wordy skill of the draughtsman; lofty and often contradictory generalizations, all based upon the same meagre stock of knowledge; a modicum of well-worn

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facts tricked out in varying degrees of picturesqueness." Mr. Wylie thinks that minuteness has not hitherto been the bane of history, and he is apparently satisfied to live at the dawn of that documentary age which, in the words of Lord Acton, "will tend to make history independent of historians, and to develop learning at the expense of writing." Nothing could be more unlike literature than Rymer's 'Foedera,' and yet, says Mr. Wylie, "it put fresh life into the treatment of the whole field of English history, and did not in the end destroy the delight of students any more than the discovery of the Assyrian bricks or the Moabite stone."

It will be quickly seen that we are not stating the ideas of one isolated scholar. Opinions like those which have just been quoted are intrenched in our leading universities. The typical American professor of history might, if the research method were accused of making books dull, reply in borrowed phrase that "there are worse things than dulness—worse if that which professes to be history is no history at all." Moreover, and here we reach the practical issue, our scheme of college teaching is grounded upon the conception that the proper study of the past began with Leopold von Ranke. Whatever outward respect may be shown the "classical" historians of Greece, Rome, and modern Europe, their masterpieces are left untouched by the undergraduate because he is engaged in exploiting other kinds of material.

We now come to the views which Mr. Adams expressed at Madison. Indeed, we have kept them chiefly in mind from the start. Mr. Adams is strongly convinced that the research system of historical instruction has been carried beyond the normal point in American universities. At the end of his address, he turns towards the ideal historian of the future, whom he expects to be a greater benefactor than any President or politician, and describes his qualities. "He must be a prophet and a poet, as well as an investigator and an annalist. He must cut loose from many of the models and most of the precedents of the immediate past, and the educational precepts now so commonly in vogue. He must perplex the modern college professor by asserting that soundness is not always and of necessity dull, and that even intellectual sobriety may be carried to excess." Nor does Mr. Adams hesitate to describe the nurture of the true historian. "Becoming more of an artist, rhetorician, and philosopher than he now is, he must be less of a pedant and colorless investigator. In a word, going back to Moses, Thucydides, and Herodotus; Tacitus, Gibbon, and Voltaire; Niebuhr, Macaulay, Carlyle, Buckle, Green, Mommsen, and Froude, he must study their systems, and, avoiding the mistakes into which they fell, thoughtfully accommodating himself to the conditions of the present, he must prepare to fulfil the mission before him."

Between Mr. Wylie and Mr. Adams, what is to be the fate of the undergraduate? Mr. Wylie says: "Henceforward our backs are to be ruthlessly turned on the old barren generalizations, and we are to look on no detail as trivial which tends to supplement our scanty knowledge of the past." Mr. Adams says: "I distinctly look back with regret to that more spiritual and more confident time when we, of the generation now passing from the stage, drew our inspiration from prophets, and not from laboratories." Here is the parting of the ways. Shall the undergraduate, from the start, be made what Mr. Wylie calls "a researcher," or shall he master the historians in Mr. Adams's list, and others of the next lower rank?

For our own part we think Mr. Adams's contention just, and we have no scruple in saying so. He would be the last to scorn the appliances of scholarship or to deny the value of facts. But appliances are merely a means, and facts are merely data. We shall not take the tone of an alarmist and say that the undergraduates of our large colleges are made bibliographers and nothing more. They learn much useful method and may imbibe a love of sheer historical truth. The pity is that they are caught too young. When they should be reading the funeral speech of Pericles, even in Jowett, they are preparing "special reports." As a disciplinary exercise, history is far from being the best possible training. It helps the youth most by enlarging his horizon, by firing his imagination, by quickening his sympathies, and by prompting him to great actions through the contemplation of great examples. Few teachers have the genius to impart the "hard, gem-like flame" of historical inspiration, but all can at least point out the authors who have best succeeded in realizing the nature of this inspiration. The compilers of good *Jahrbücher* have their own honorable place, but they should not be the first or chief guides of the undergraduate.

We would neither seem too earnest nor press our opinion too far. We simply think that most American universities at present exalt the great methods above the great writers. We, like Mr. Adams, look forward with hope to the time when the historian who shall at once be the truest product of the university and the surest leader of public opinion, will speak with

> "An eloquence scarce given to mortals, new
> And undebased by praise of meaner things."

THE LACK OF OPPOSITION.

I have often discussed with Englishmen, during the last few years, the question why we have no organized opposition in America. Ever since the civil war, any attempt to oppose the party in power has been generally futile or contemptible. After the second election of Cleveland, the last shreds of respectability vanished from the opposition, so that at last the Republican party was able to win and divide the offices with such a makeshift as McKinley.

I think the matter may be explained by simple observation of what has happened within the last few months. McKinley had committed some of the most flagrant errors ever committed by a party man. He had violated all the most revered American traditions. The consequence was that he was violently opposed in the beginning by some of the most prominent American citizens, as one might have expected. They accused him of crimes against the American commonwealth which all the best political writers with whom I am acquainted have pronounced unpardonable. They are crimes such as I have never heard of being forgiven by an enraged people.

Well, all these crimes have been overlooked by these very men. They all say they believe all they have ever said about McKinley, which showed him to be the most unfit man who ever filled a great place in a civilized country, yet now they are all out persuading people to vote for him. Something of the same kind occurred after Cleveland's election. He was promptly abandoned by the men who helped to elect him, and who would, it was supposed, form the nucleus of a reform party. They quickly disbanded, and ceased to take any interest apparently even in him, or in the things for which he stood.

Here is the explanation of our failures as reformers. We are reformers for only one election, and if that election does not reform, we disperse to our homes like the old French *arrière-ban*, and say we have had "enough of politics," and nothing more is heard of the reform for years. We then occupy ourselves in that favorite American fashion, by making apologies for the man who has got the place, no matter who he is or what he does. We begin our excuses for him with the phrase, "Oh, well now," and generally predict a fall of stocks if our attempt should be repeated. Bad as McKinley is, he has not caused a fall of stocks; and who is so foolish as to care what has become of the American commonwealth or reputation if there has not been a fall of stocks?

The morale of a party strikingly resembles that of an army. As in an army, each member of it has to feel sure, if discipline is perfect, not simply that he will stand fire himself, but that his comrades may be depended upon to do the same thing; and, above all, that his leaders may be safely followed as persons who have considered the whole situation, and know that their position is a sound one. An army whose generals took occasional service with the enemy could not hold together for three months. It would not do for them to tell the troops, now and then, that the enemy was a good fellow and meant well, and ought to have another trial. The gentlemen I have spoken of have been demonstrating, with all their force and eloquence, for the last year or two, that McKinley was committing a series of heinous crimes against sound morality and against the Constitution. A more complete disqualification than they have proved, of the man's unfitness for any high public position, it would be impossible to make. And yet they are now telling the people who believed in them, who followed them, who trusted them, that it was "all gammon and spinach," that McKinley is not such a bad fellow, after all, and that he ought to have another chance to massacre a distant unoffending people, to lay waste their property, to violate his own Constitution, to demoralize the American army, to spend the public revenues in criminal enterprises. The situation reminds us of Tacitus's report of the way the Roman nobility "rushed into servitude" under Tiberius, when they felt sure that he had "euchred" them.

I have long held the opinion that American youths receive their education in politics and morals far more through seeing how their elders behave than through books or teachers or religious instruction. Nowadays what a boy receives from his teacher or pastor is far inferior to what comes to him through association with his father and his father's friends. He is influenced greatly by the way he sees the machinery of state carried on by conspicuous men, and by the way in which persons whom he respects

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as orators and statesmen and executive officers administer their trusts or speak their sentiments. In fact, the reason why men like the gentlemen I have mentioned take the trouble to make public their opinion about McKinley or Bryan, or the acts of Government generally, is because they think those opinions will influence hundreds and thousands of young men. But what if these great men do not hold the same opinions for more than two or three months at a time, and show plainly, and don't mind who sees it, that their opinions can be bought, like the rest of their possessions; that the prospect of a place, the honor of a title, a compliment from party confederates, the prospect of a little business gain, or the mere comfort of being in accord with people they meet in society, would induce them to change their views about public affairs, and the character and competency of the persons who administer them, at the shortest notice? What is to be the future of a democracy that has no steadfast guides on whom it can rely? Can such a state of things be properly described by anybody but Offenbach? E.--L. G.

Correspondence.

WHAT IF M'KINLEY SHOULD REVERT?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The bankers at Richmond, as noticed in your issue of October 11, 1900, besides stating that the act of March 14 offered no adequate protection to the gold standard, gave expression to the great danger of intrusting the administration of that law to a hostile Executive, thereby impliedly espousing the reëlection of President McKinley and opposing the election of Mr. Bryan. Now, is it not a notorious fact that Mr. McKinley, during President Cleveland's Administration, bitterly denounced, in the halls of Congress, that gentleman's preference for the "yellow metal"? Mr. McKinley since that time has changed his mind on this subject, as, indeed, on many others. This record before the country, might not circumstances arise under which Mr. McKinley's friendly attitude towards the gold standard could be changed into a hostile one? Is the statement that Mr. McKinley has been on "all sides of all questions at all times" too sweeping? Has the danger of his being "markhanna-ized" at any time been totally averted?—Respectfully,

Emil Coith.

Chicago, October 20, 1900.

BEVERIDGE ON TRUSTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with surprise the *Nation's* commendation of Senator Beveridge's speech on Trusts as "the most sensible deliverance on the subject that has come from any speaker on either side," in view of his use of the department-store as an instance of a good Trust. A great service would be rendered by one who should make clear the difference between good and bad Trusts, but Senator Beveridge makes hopeless confusion by his failure to discriminate between the most radically dissimilar things. It would be hard to find a more striking illustration than the department-store affords of just what the Trust is not.

No doubt there is much vagueness in the popular use of the word Trust, but the fundamental idea is unquestionably monopoly, or an approach thereto so close as to secure control of the market and, therefore, of prices. Several economists have shown that this does not necessarily imply an absolute monopoly. There is sometimes competition, and that of a most cut-throat order. But it is only temporary, while the Trust is undeveloped, and is for the specific purpose of ruining competitors, or compelling them to join the Trust, and so destroying competition. If the Trust does not succeed in destroying competition, it is regarded to that extent as a failure. The department-store, on the contrary, exemplifies the farthest extreme of unrestricted competition. Those who denounce all Trusts oppose them because they destroy competition. But those who denounce department-stores oppose them for precisely the opposite reason.

The distinction which ought to be made is the distinction between large-scale production and monopoly. The alleged benefits to the public from the "good" Trusts are due in no respect to the Trust feature, but wholly to the economies of large-scale production—economies that are also exhibited in the department-store, which is the farthest antipode of the Trust, and yet are not always found in Trusts. No progress can be made towards a solution of the Trust problem by those who ignore this elementary distinction. The problem is how to secure generally the economies of large-scale production without the evils inseparable from monopoly. For several centuries experience has demonstrated Mr. Bryan's thesis that "monopoly in private hands is indefensible from any standpoint, and intolerable."

Respectfully yours, H. H. Swain.

Dillon, Montana, October 12, 1900.

THE APPEAL OF THE DUTCH PROFESSORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I crave some space to reply to the letter of Prof. Swets in your issue of October 11.

The argument my adversary uses is characteristic of the Boers and their supporters; it is "slim." Because there was slavery in America at the time the Declaration of Independence was written and published, he contends, in effect, that, at the close of the nineteenth century, the late Transvaal Government was entirely justified in refusing equal rights to the blacks. But, apart from the fact that the United States has long since abolished slavery, my point was that the Boers refused equal rights to the *white* race in their country, and sought to hold the Anglo-Saxon settlers—who had come in response to the official invitation of the Transvaal Commission to Great Britain—in a state of civil and political degradation.

The ill-treatment of the colored race by the Boers is so notorious a fact that it is idle to argue that it is equal or superior in kindliness and justice to the treatment that native races everywhere receive at the hands of my fellow-countrymen. Nor does it strengthen Professor Swets's position to adduce the compound system at Kimberley, and to affirm, as he does, that it is "slavery in the worst sense." The system is due originally to the atrocious Boer treatment of the blacks, and to the temptation to drink the poisonous "Cape smoke" which is everywhere placed in the Kaffir's way. The slaves of old never were paid wages, were sold as cattle, and had no rights whatever. The Kaffir in the Kimberley compounds is allowed to return home at stated intervals during the course of his contract, and, when his term is up, he goes home altogether if he desires it, carrying away with him the wages he has earned.

As for Mr. Cronwright Schreiner's authority, I do not esteem it worth much, nor, I am certain, would Professor Swets think any more of it were I to quote, as I might easily do, denunciations of the Boer by the very gentleman he so complacently cites. The franchise law passed by the Volksraad was deliberately framed in such fashion as to be unworkable and to fool the outer public. All the public was not fooled, however, and it would be easy for my adversary to convince himself of the accuracy of my statement by simply reading that law and seeing how it works out. As regards franchise in Great Britain, will Professor Swets point out a single instance of its being refused to any person save a proved and convicted criminal?

He speaks of the support given by Uitlanders, other than the British, to the Transvaal cause. Why does he not give us the opinion, *at present*, of these Uitlanders, who have been paid—and partially paid only—in worthless Transvaal paper, and who behold Mr. Kruger making off to Holland with the Government millions in his possession? If he refers to those Uitlanders from Chicago who went out under the cloak of the Red Cross Society, and then turned mercenaries, he is quite welcome to the support of such scoundrels, whom no Briton desires to have anything to do with save as foes.

The reference to the prize awarded to the Transvaal ex-Government for its educational exhibit at Paris is interesting. But is it not a fact that most of the Boer education was comprised in the exhibit itself, and that little is, or rather was, to be found in the country itself? And, if the Boers are as civilized as he holds, then what of the numerous abuses of the Red Cross privileges and the false surrenders, of one of which at least Lord Roberts was an eye-witness?

And as to the Boers having fought for their liberty, I grant that they did so of late, for they had seen the tide turn. But they began the war, and meant it to be a war of conquest. Does Professor Swets forget Joubert's declaration at the outset: "We hold the English in the hollow of our hand"? That does not sound like men entering on a life-and-death struggle for liberty against great odds; and Joubert and Reitz and Steyn knew very well that their liberty was in no danger, for Britain had offered to guarantee and defend it with the whole power of her vast empire. Let Professor Swets read the evidence of Transvaalers and Hollanders given before the Concessions Commission. It will enlighten him as to the righteousness of the Boer cause and the liberty cry.

Finally, the Boers began the destruction of farmhouses, and of inoffensive ones to boot, while Professor Swets must be aware that military critics of the highest rank blamed Lord Roberts for being so tender-hearted as to spare the dwellings of the very men engaged in fighting his troops

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and in ambushing his soldiers. The use of the white flag on Boer farmhouses is again respectfully drawn to Professor Swets's attention.—Yours sincerely,

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 16, 1900.

CUSHMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The derivation of the name Cushman (No. 1842, p. 309) lacks one thing needed to make it acceptable, to wit, proof that the artisan who made femoral armor (*cuisses cuissarts*, cuishes) was ever styled cuissman or cushman; for Mr. Chamberlain's derivation postulates the fact that he was. But no proof is offered; and indeed, were the derivation true, no proof would be called for beyond reference to the dictionary, as in the parallel cases, Bowyer, Fletcher. The absence of cushman from the dictionary must be taken as conclusive proof that the word was never in use in the language in any meaning. And if Mr. Chamberlain's derivation is correct, cushman is a hybrid word, half Norman, half Saxon. That fact adds to the improbability of the derivation: cuissarts were made for and worn by nobles and knights only, and can we suppose that in the thirteenth century, when such patches of plate, in reinforcement of chain armor, came into use, the proud Norman knights would call the artificers by a mixed appellation like that? Plainly, as appears from the passage in the *Nation* (No. 1840, p. 276), the term for maker of cuisses was kissere, from the Norman. The vulgar was not concerned with such matters, so the thigh armor and the thigh armorer had no need of a Saxon designation.

But, further, the form cushman as designation of the artificer of the cuissart is anomalous. According to the analogy of such compounds as bowman, spearman, pikeman, rifleman, swordsman, and oarsman, cushman (if the *cush* is *cuisse*) will mean a man wearing cuisses. In fact, is there in the language, or was there at any period, a word at all points analogous to the supposititious word cushman—any word of the formula *x*-man and meaning maker of *x*?

Might it not be that Cushman is a corruption or variant of Cushing as that in all probability is of Cussen (pron. *cushen* or *kwishen*)? With great diffidence the conjecture is offered that Cussen has for its first element *cois* (pron. *kush* or *kwish*), *cois* being the possessive case of *cos* (Gaelic), foot; and that the derivation of Cushman is from Gaelic without intermixture of Saxon.

JOSEPH FITZGERALD.

MAMARONECK, N. Y., October 20, 1900.

ANOTHER FALSE SINGULAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1839 of the *Nation*, Prof. Fred Newton Scott calls "attention to the increasing use of the word *data* as a singular noun." Is it possible that *kine* also will come to be so regarded? In the article on "The Seven Lean Years," by "Referee," in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October, 1900, this sentence occurs on page 515: " . . . that every lean kine that came would be followed by a fat one." G. S. W.

October 20, 1900.

SACK SHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of 'The Voyage of Robert Dudley' (p. 295), mention is made of a "small prize of 'sackes'." Can your reviewer or any reader explain this last word? In a report on the state of Nova Scotia, dated May 29, 1732, the committee state that the Canso fishery is carried on by British subjects from New England, and by them and other "Sack ships" exported to the markets. The dictionaries, etc., available throw no light on it. A. M. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX, N. S., October 18, 1900.

Notes.

Mrs. Paget Toynbee has undertaken to prepare for the Clarendon Press a new edition of the Letters of Horace Walpole, and desires to make it as complete as possible. Nearly two hundred letters which are not included in current editions have already been secured. Others doubtless remain in private hands, and the loan of such or of careful copies is requested. Mrs. Toynbee's address is Dorney Wood, Burnham, Bucks, England. The new edition will make ten or eleven octavo volumes.

Some limited editions announced are worth recording. Preston & Rounds Co., Providence, will put on sale only 200 copies of the 'Civil and Military List of Rhode Island, 1647-1800,' a list of all officers elected by the General Assembly from its organization; compiled from the records by Josepn Jencks Smith. More than fifty thousand names will appear in it. One thousand numbered sets of the Holly Edition in forty volumes of the Complete Works of Washington Irving, newly illustrated in photogravure by a score of artists, and as many of the Whitehall Edition of Macaulay's Complete Works in twenty volumes, with numerous full-page illustrations, are offered by G. P. Putnam's Sons, who will also sell by subscription the Otsego Edition of Fenimore Cooper's Works in sixteen volumes. Finally, but one hundred copies of 'The Solitary Summer,' printed on Japanese vellum, will be obtainable of Macmillan Co.

The works of Theodore Roosevelt, in fifteen volumes, to be sold separately, will be published by the Messrs. Putnam in a "Sagamore Series." The initial volume, 'American Ideals,' will contain a biographical and critical memoir by Gen. F. V. Greene. The final volume, chronologically, 'The Rough Riders,' is included by arrangement with the Messrs. Scribner. It is, we are assured in the prospectus, "everywhere recognized as one of the most perfect chapters of military history ever penned—both for manner and matter."

The Wakefield Edition of the Complete Works of Oliver Goldsmith in the press of Harper & Bros. will comprise twelve volumes, including Forster's Life and a special introduction by Austin Dobson. Peter Cunningham supplies note and comment. More than one hundred photogravure illustrations will adorn the text.

The same firm will publish 'Napoleon: The Last Phase,' by Lord Rosebery; 'The Riddle of the Universe,' by Ernst Haeckel; 'The Story of 19th Century Science,' by Henry Smith Williams; and 'Thrilling Days in Army Life,' by Gen. George A. Forsythe.

Additional announcements from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are 'Sir Joshua Reynolds' and 'Murillo' in Miss Estelle M. Hurll's popular Riverside Art Series.

James Pott & Co. will soon have ready 'Causes of the Outbreak in China,' by the Rev. F. L. Hawks Pott, D.D., President of St. John's College, Shanghai.

An Index to the 28 volumes of *St. Nicholas* is in the press of the Helman-Taylor Co., Cleveland, against the new year. It has been prepared by the staff of the 'Cumulative Index,' and will be a dictionary catalogue in form.

The enormous productiveness of Elizabeth Barrett Browning is shown in the Cambridge edition of her complete poetical works just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The condensed "Juvenilia" alone occupy nearly thirty pages in double column. The editing has been done by a woman, presumably Miss Harriet Waters Preston, who furnishes the biographical sketch and some annotations in addition to the customary introductions to the poems. The familiar portrait of Mrs. Browning faces the vignette of Casa Guidi on the engraved title-page.

Mrs. Anna Hollingsworth Wharton intimates, in her introduction, the motive for reproducing Mrs. Elizabeth F. Ellet's half-century-old 'Women of the American Revolution,' just issued in two volumes by George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia. Such an enterprise has been rendered a profitable venture by the recent rise of "various patriotic societies . . . organized among women." The work is pleasing in appearance and has many portraits, and will, no doubt, fall in with the current unhappy association of patriotism with war alone.

We see this influence percolating to youthful strata in Miss Maud Humphrey's 'Children of the Revolution,' skilful color designs from a hand long practised in delineating childhood, accompanied by semi-historical text and verse from the pen of Miss Mabel Humphrey, objectionable if only on the score of English. Frederick A. Stokes Co. are the publishers.

Mountaineering literature is expensive, and many readers must be content to borrow Alpine books from the public library. However, Sir W. M. Conway's 'Alps from End to End' (Lippincott), which five years ago brought a high price, has been well reprinted in comparatively cheap form. As we reviewed this volume when it appeared, we need only recall the fact that it ranks well among those delightful works which have had their origin in holiday scrambles above the snow line. Topographically it is very comprehensive, and it brings two Gurkhas into the unusual setting of Switzerland and the Tyrol. The geographical supplement, by Mr. Coolidge, is brief, but important to climbers. We may add that the profuse and clever illustrations of Mr. A. D. McCormick are made a part of this cheaper edition.

Major Waddell's 'Among the Himalayas' (Lippincott) is also a reprinted book of travel, the first edition of which was published in London a little less than two years ago. A link between the two volumes is furnished by Mr. A. D. McCormick, the illustrator of both. He had never seen a mountain until he was taken out by Sir Martin Conway to climb Pioneer Peak, if possible, and, at any rate, to make drawings for the expedition. Since then, he has become an authority on Himalayan and Alpine scenery.

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'Among the Himalayas,' which can now be bought for about one-third of its original price, is a record of travel rather than of sport. Major Waddell has explored the district of Sikhim more thoroughly than any one since the days of Sir Joseph Hooker, and, though no climber, he has seen his share of danger. The crossing of a Himalayan torrent on a rickety cane-bridge will try the nerves as severely as the sharpest arête. The cost of travelling in the districts of Nepal, Tibet, and Sikhim is so great, and the toil so trying, that few exploring parties enter that section of the Indian hill country. Major Waddell's narrative is well written and embraces both land and people. Of the mountains, he adds fuller information about Everest than about Kanchenjunga. But whether Everest is really higher than all its neighbors, he had no means of determining.

'Pictures of the Old French Court,' by Catherine Bearne (Dutton), is at best a slight contribution, whether to history or to biography. If it were better executed, we might compare it with some of the numerous books which the late Mrs. Oliphant composed. But 'The Makers of Florence,' 'The Makers of Venice,' 'Jeanne d'Arc,' etc., were grounded upon a firmer foundation of fact, and were certainly written in a better style. The subjects of Miss Bearne's sketches are Charles V. and Jeanne de Bourbon, Charles VI. and Isabeau de Bavière, and Anne de Bretagne. She has collected a good deal of personal detail from the Chroniclers, and she even makes reference to 'L'Art de Vérifier les Dates,' but her use of historical authorities is unconvincing. For instance, she should know whether the name of a modern writer to whom she is greatly indebted, and whom she cites *passim* in her first sketch, is Siméon de Luce or Siméon Luce. She uses both forms with impartiality. This is an average piece of historical book-making, but lacks the erudition which should accompany its setting forth of footnotes. The illustrations are better than the text.

'The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland' (McClurg) is a reprinted translation of the autobiography which the Girondist Egeria wrote at Ste.-Pélagie shortly before her execution. The English version which is followed by the present publishers is one of 1795. It has long been out of print and may possess some claim upon modern notice, though in places it seems awkward. Mme. Roland, the disciple of Plutarch, shared the biographical talent of her master, albeit her manner of writing differs *toto cœlo* from his. In such an age, the soul of the Girondist party could not but take herself seriously. Yet sometimes one observes an added touch of the philosophical and abstract spirit which was a quality of the Girondist leaders. For example, "At length I became the wife of a man of genuine worth, who loved me more in proportion as his knowledge of me increased. Married thus with my own full consent, I found nothing to make me repent of the step; I devoted myself to him with a zeal perhaps more ardent than discreet. . . . I have not for a moment ceased to behold in my husband one of the most estimable of men, to whom I deem it an honor to belong; but I have often been sensible of a certain lack of parity between us, and that the ascendancy of a somewhat masterful character, added to twenty years of seniority, rendered one of these superiorities too great." Mme. Roland is both a heroine of romance and an historic personage whom no one could think of overlooking. Accordingly, this translation will be welcomed by many who do not read French. The illustrations are good, but we should have preferred to see the Goupil portrait used for a frontispiece.

Fresh editions of George Borrow's works continue to spring from the renewed interest in his literary genius and singular character. We have before us a one-volume 'Bible in Spain' (Putnams), with the notes and glossary of the late Mr. U. R. Burke. Borrow's text requires some comment and a great deal of explanation. For instance, where one's knowledge of Romany is restricted to the meaning of such words as *crallis*, *Corahai*, *hokkawar*, etc., he will need to have the "crabbed Gitano" translated at many points where the author hurries on without a note. Those who are familiar either with Borrow's personality or with the way in which 'The Bible in Spain' was composed, will not feel surprised at the unannotated form in which it went to the printer; and it remained for nearly two generations without any careful editor. Mr. Burke, himself a historian of Spain, had an accurate knowledge of the country and of Borrow's other writings. His notes, without being obtrusive, are frequent, clear, and, in most cases, conclusive. Unfortunately, his death occurred before the volume could be printed, and the preparation of the glossary fell into other hands. However, Mr. H. W. Greene of Magdalen College, Oxford, took up the unfinished task and brought it to a successful end. The glossary is very full and deserves the notice of philologists. Besides several etchings, this edition contains a good map of the Peninsula, upon which the course of Borrow's four journeys is traced.

'The Life of Major-General James Shields,' by William H. Condon (New York: the author), purports to be the only full story of the career of a highly picturesque personage, who, partly by talent and partly by fortune, obtained distinction in two American wars and represented two States in the Senate, viz., Illinois for six years and Minnesota for one. But this story is so ill arranged, and so largely governed by the determination to make its hero a great man, that the true merit of Shields is hard to extract from the narrative. For example, Shields was in command of the division of Banks's Shenandoah army which, in March, 1862, inflicted a defeat upon Stonewall Jackson, and just missed, through the fault of some officer, whether of Shields himself or one of his subordinates, surrounding and possibly capturing Jackson. The biographer has gathered all the contemporary or later newspaper accounts which are accessible with regard to these affairs, and printed them in detail; but of critical discussion of the reasons which eventuated in Shields being refused the promotion which seemed to be his desert after the battle, or of any rational explanation why he seemed to be in ill favor at Washington, there is none. The title-page illustrates the careless and bombastic character of most of the book: "Hero of Three Wars and Senator from Three States." The third war and State appear to be of the author's imagination.

Among the several naval books published and announced this autumn are two lives of our celebrated sea-fighter, John Paul Jones. One of these appears as one of the "Great Commanders Series" published by D. Appleton & Co. Its author is the Rev. Cyrus Townsend Brady, who promises to become one of the prolific writers of the day. The first of the Commanders Series was Mahan's 'Farragut'; this is the second of the naval biographies, but the contrast from any point of view is unfavorable to the later biographer. He has not, among other things, exercised the care in preparation shown by Mahan, and several instances of this will be observed by comparing Jones's letters to Mr. Hewes and others with the statements at variance made by Mr. Brady. Take also the unsatisfactory reference made to the early life of Jones in this country, and the dubious account given of the assumption by the former John Paul of the name of Jones. Mr. Brady depicts Jones more as an adventurer than as a sometime planter and slave-owner. In other respects also inaccuracies will be found in this perhaps hastily written book.

In a little volume entitled 'Cranford Souvenirs, and Other Sketches' (Rivingtons), the Hon. Mrs. Lionel Tollemache has brought together a few magazine articles, products of leisure and enforced retirement, not specially noteworthy further than for the kindliness and good breeding they exhibit. Several of these papers give their readers a fair impression of the trivialities which for the most part make up the life of a dweller in a Swiss, or other, *Kurort*. The two longest essays are biographical, and deal with the almost forgotten Charles de Bonstetten, and with the earlier, unexceptionable years in the life of George Sand. Of Bonstetten the writer gives a tolerably lifelike picture, which brings out, entirely without malice prepense, the peculiar color of moral priggishness that too often attends the didacticism of Protestant Switzerland. Three or four enigmatical fables serve to add to the bulk of the small collection.

New Testament scholars will welcome the appearance again of Professor Gregory of Leipzig in the field where he is a master. The first volume of his long-expected work on the "Textual Criticism of the New Testament" has just been published in German by Hinrichs of Leipzig. It is an octavo of 478 pages, in which, after a summary account of N. T. palæography as respects materials, implements, scribes, characters, etc., the author proceeds to deal with the sources of our New Testament text under four divisions, viz., Greek Manuscripts, Greek Liturgical Books, Ancient Versions, both the Eastern and the Western, and Church Fathers. Only the first two of these four classes of helps find place in the present volume. Its contents consist, in the main, of a careful revision and enlargement of the Prolegomena of Tischendorf's "Eighth Larger Edition." During the ten years that have elapsed since the completion of that portion of the Prolegomena, much new material has accumulated which Dr. Gregory has faithfully utilized. Accordingly, for fulness and accuracy of information respecting the sources of our Greek New Testament the present volume, for the ground it covers, stands unrivalled. The concluding volume we are encouraged to hope to see by the end of the year.

The eighth part of Prof. Francis Brown's 'Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) brings us down to the root S P D through 704 of the

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more than 1,100 pages which will, it may be inferred by comparison with other Hebrew lexicons, constitute the completed work. Lexicons, as a rule, are a long time a-making, and this one is no exception to the rule. Its speedy completion is a desideratum for Hebrew scholars. There is no satisfactory Hebrew-English dictionary available at present, and none of the Hebrew-German dictionaries is equal to this work, so far as it has progressed, in thoroughness, sober common sense, and the scientific use of the latest critical results. Among the notable articles in the present part is one on *nephesh*, commonly translated in the English Bible as "soul," more often meaning, however, "self" or "life" or "person." Under *mazzebah*, the "pillar" of the English Bible, we get a glimpse of the religious development of the Hebrews; the arrangement of references showing that these sacred stones were used and allowed until the seventh century, when they were "condemned for Israel by Deuteronomic code and Deuteronomic redaction of Kings." *Lammenazzeach*, rendered in our Bible "to the chief musician," which occurs in the heading of fifty-five Psalms, is explained as showing that these Psalms belonged originally to a "Director's Psalter," which was "probably the prayer-book of the synagogue of the Greek period." To this prayer-book belonged, also, the third chapter of Habakkuk. The mysterious *selah* of the Psalter indicated the "place of benedictions," and came into use in the late Persian period.

We turn children loose in Shakspere as we do in the Bible, confident that the occasional grossness will be overlooked or fail to be understood; whereas, if we undertake to read aloud, we must perforce skip and omit. Or if, again, we use the plays in school discipline, or put them on the boards at women's colleges, we must expurgate freely. Hence, no apology need be offered for Mrs. Sarah Willard Hiestand's "Beginner's Shakspere," in D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Home and School Classics," so far as it is abridged for the reason above suggested, and on the score of intelligibility or want of interest. In favor of her method is to be urged this editor's well-stated view that the wrong done to literary masterpieces by making them objects of classroom drill may be mitigated by cursory reading for its own sake, with hardly a note of explanation. After the spell has been fastened and the general plot better comprehended for the excisions, the analytic consideration may be counted upon to enhance interest rather than to repel. "The Tempest" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream" are the first two numbers.

Other issues in the same commendable series, which is illustrated, by the way, and attractively printed in bold letter, are Mrs. Ewing's 'Jackanapes,' and Hamerton's 'Chapters on Animals,' edited by Prof. W. P. Trent, Goldsmith's 'Goody Two-Shoes,' edited by Charles Welsh, etc.

It would be impossible to examine in detail the numerous volumes in the "Star" series of English Classics undertaken by the Globe School-Book Company of New York and Chicago. They are aimed not at the primary but at the high school, and the names of the editors show a real endeavor to provide an apparatus of high quality. Take, for example, as proof of independence and insight, Prof. William Hand Browne's analysis of the character of Dr. Primrose in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' or Miss Mary A. Jordan's refusal to make Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America conform to the ancient canons of oratory. The volume last named merits exceptional attention for the pains taken to illuminate the subject from every side. Other volumes are plays of Shakspere, novels of Cooper and Scott and George Eliot, poems from Milton and Tennyson, etc. The mechanical part has been very well looked after.

Dr. Elliott Coues's monumental edition of the Lewis and Clark Journals has proved a boon to Nellie F. Kingsley in her efforts to condense and give continuity to the narrative of this most famous expedition. Her little volume, 'The Story of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clark, for Young Readers' (Werner School Book Co.), besides recording the salient features of the exploration, contains a number of maps and illustrations, and a short introductory account, by the editor, of the earlier discoveries in the Northwest.

Mr. Gelett Burgess's patent hydrocephalous type of cranium has a peculiarly unpleasing effect as applied to children in his 'Goops, and How to Be Them' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). His quarto volume purports to be "a manual of manners for polite infants," done into nursery jingle and illustrated in this clever artist's peculiar manner. But infants naturally polite would be in much danger of learning for the first time about vulgar ways, while the humor of the illustrations is destructive of a sense for beauty and refinement at once. Not a few of the stanzas, it must be said, if taken from the mass and printed without the drawings, would be a real addition to the mnemonics of correct habits in the nursery and elsewhere.

With the original text of 'Robinson Crusoe' the brothers Louis and Frederick Rhead have combined a series of illustrations and decorative borders cleverly executed with the pen (New York: R. H. Russell). The artists' originality consists in having frankly accepted Defoe's own location of Crusoe's island, off the mouth of the Orinoco; and in the West Indies, accordingly, they have made studies of tropical vegetation and animal life to give a reasonable setting to the story. So far as youthful readers are concerned, this is surely a work of supererogation, implying no gain, say, over Stothard's unstudied designs. His fancy and technical skill are on a higher plane. Still, the edition has no doubt found its excuse for being. The typography is above the common; but we can more easily forgive the overweighted running-title than we can the unindented-paragraph affectation.

The fifth issue of Meyer's 'Historisch-Geographischer Kalender,' for 1901 (Leipzig; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), shows changes and improvements, within its steadfast scheme, in conformity with the wishes of a large body of patrons. Among the illustrations, those of places, from Merian, serve as a bond of unity with the preceding issues; natural science is more extensively represented; and there is still a sprinkling of fresh engravings from photographs after nature. Nothing more up to date, perhaps, in this class, can be named than the view on folio 164 of the railway station at Kilindi, in Mombassa, on the line of the Uganda Railroad. The British protectorate of Uganda embraces a million inhabitants.

—The third in the series of ten octavo volumes of "The World's Orators," edited by Guy Carleton Lee, Ph.D., and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, deals with 'Orators of the Early and Mediæval Church.' Twenty-two of these, ten Eastern and twelve from the West, are represented by twenty-nine specimens. If so familiar a source as the New Testament had to be drawn upon, it is not easy to see why St. Paul's address to Agrippa should have been preferred to his masterly speech at Athens, unless because the latter is so short and obviously fragmentary. Among successors of the apostles, the difficulties of selection were no doubt considerable; but an orator is expected to be oratorical, and higher flights than are here offered might be looked for from Chrysostom and Augustine. Yet a peculiar frame of mind is needed to find enlivening reading in old sermons, and to the uncloistered reader almost any samples of the hortatory or expository utterances of long ago are apt to seem not only remote but somewhat rudimentary. The lovers of light cherish a kindly feeling towards Origen, but it cannot be pretended that his explanation of "The Parable of the Dragnet" adds to our knowledge. The "Seven Rhythms" of Ephrem Syrus on "The Pearl" (*i. e.*, the Faith) are imaginative rather than illuminating; and, though the authors were so eminent, it is difficult to be deeply interested in what Leo the Great had to say "On his Birthday," or Gregory the Great "On Job."

—But perhaps it is considering too curiously to seek edification from these antique prelections: they should be approached from another side. They are monuments, historical landmarks; or, if not quite so much, at least illustrations of the standards and tastes of the past. The editor admits that some of his selections "are more valuable as indicating steps in progress than as brilliant specimens of eloquence." If even the more personal and intimate among them—Gregory Thaumaturgus's Panegyric on Origen, that of Nazianzen on his friend Basil, and his Farewell to his patriarchate, Urban II.'s speech at the Council of Clermont urging the crusade, and St. Bernard's lament "On the Death of his Brother"—have their points a little dulled by time, we should remember that these, and not only these, but the less notable efforts here associated with them, "seemed to their hearers eloquent beyond criticism." Dr. Lee is surely too exigent in requiring these ancient masterpieces to conform to the "rules of the twentieth century," since we do not yet know what those rules will be. Into this company of fathers and doctors of the Church one incongruous figure has been—perhaps too liberally—admitted. Constantine the Great was fond of orating, but (from our modern viewpoint) the pulpit was hardly the place for him, and "The Coming of Our Lord in the Flesh" not exactly a suitable topic. The best that can be said of this appearance of Saul among the prophets is that he disported himself more gracefully than did the late Col. James Fisk on a somewhat similar occasion. It is a pity that Dr. Lee did not follow this excerpt with one from Eusebius's laudations of the Christian Emperor. The 'Life of Constantine' would surely afford passages sufficiently oratorical, and fully illustrative of the ideas and modes of expression of that age. But if other sources than professed speeches had been drawn upon,

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the epistle of Ignatius to the Romans affords passages more poetical and moving than anything in this volume.

—Ten years ago, as now, New Hampshire was the first of the New England States for which the Census Office made public the statistics of population by minor civil divisions. We then examined those statistics in some detail, because of the light they threw upon the movements of population in rural New England. A similar study now shows that the rural towns, as a class, are still losing inhabitants, although such loss has not been quite so great in the last ten years as it was in the decade between 1880 and 1890. In 1890 every one of 148 of the 249 towns of the State had fewer inhabitants than it had in 1880. This year every one of 133 towns has a less numerous population than it had ten years ago. One hundred and thirty-six towns, or considerably more than half of all the towns of the State, have to-day fewer inhabitants than they had in 1870. The losses of population have been, as a rule, in the towns which were already sparsely inhabited. Of the fifteen cities or towns every one of which now has upwards of 4,000 inhabitants, not one has a less population than it had in 1890, although it appears probable that, had it not been for an extension of its boundaries during the decade, Laconia might now show a decrease. Of the nineteen places which now have between 2,000 and 4,000 inhabitants each, five are less populous than they were a decade ago. Of the 25 which now have between 1,500 and 2,000 inhabitants each, 9 have suffered a loss since 1880. Of the 40 with between 1,000 and 1,500 inhabitants each, one-half have gained, the other half have lost. Of the 150 each of which has less than a thousand inhabitants, only 51, or just about one-third, have a more numerous population than they had in 1890.

—The following tables, reproduced from our columns of ten years ago, and now brought down to date, show how far in the last half century the process of concentration has been going on. The population is shown (A) for 35 towns which in 1890 had each upwards of 2,000 inhabitants; (B) for 69 towns which in 1890 had each between 1,000 and 2,000 inhabitants; (C) for 145 towns which in 1890 had each less than 1,000 inhabitants:

Census.	A	B	C
1900.....	243,726	94,228	73,634
1890.....	207,455	93,352	75,723
1880.....	167,338	94,601	85,052
1870.....	137,440	92,314	88,555
1860.....	126,235	97,815	102,020
1850.....	113,506	97,628	106,842

The following table shows the percentage of total population in (A) towns having upwards of 2,000 inhabitants in 1890; (B) towns having 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants in 1890; (C) towns having less than 1,000 inhabitants in 1890:

Census.	A	B	C
1900.....	59.22	22.89	17.89
1890.....	55.10	24.79	20.11
1880.....	48.23	27.26	24.51
1870.....	43.18	29.00	27.82
1860.....	38.71	30.00	31.29
1850.....	35.69	30.71	33.60

The largest places have more than doubled their population since 1850. The middle class have slightly fewer inhabitants than they had fifty years ago. The least populous have one-third fewer people than they had in 1850. In the middle of the century, each of the three classes of towns contained about one-third of the entire population. Now, the largest has about three-fifths, and the smallest between one-fifth and one-sixth of the whole.

—According to a statistical table in the recently published twentieth volume of Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (third annual supplement), based upon the latest data furnished by the boundary treaties between the Powers, it would appear that all but about one-seventh of the African continent is now included in some "sphere of influence" or another. The French sphere is the largest, comprising about 3,700,000 square miles (about the extent of Europe) out of a total area of 11,600,000. England comes next with 2,400,000 (including the Boer territories). Then follow in order Germany, Belgium (Congo Free State), and Portugal, each with somewhat less than a million square miles. The Egyptian sphere (about 400,000 square miles) may properly be regarded as part of the British. The extent of the French sphere will appear less imposing on consulting the map of Africa contained in the preceding volume (giving the boundaries laid down in the Anglo-French convention of 1899), which shows that within this domain is included the greater part of the sands of the Sahara. Italy continues to claim a protectorate over a sandy Eritrean waste of 250,000 square miles; and Spain, in addition to her islands, would still like to be considered as entitled to a big strip of Sahara coastland. The British sphere (including Egypt and her dependencies) is estimated to contain in round numbers about 50,000,000 souls; the French, 35,000,000; the Belgian, 17,000,000; the German, 9,000,000; the Portuguese, 8,000,000. The statistical enumeration before us winds up with an area of nearly a million square miles which is designated as *Herrenloses Gebiet*, or "Territory without a master."

—The calendar of the Imperial University of Tokio, for the year 1900, forms a handbook of over 300 pages, including a list of the publications of the University. At the present time few foreigners are connected with the six faculties of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture. The buildings of the first five institutions stand within the grounds of the former daimio of Kaga, in the northwestern part of the city, but the College of Agriculture is in one of the suburbs of Tokio. In the evolution of this institution, called, since 1897, Teikoku Daigaku (Divine Country Great School), to distinguish it from the sister institution then founded in Kioto, Japanese have for the most part replaced the foreigners as professors and instructors, though many of the native officers of administration and instruction bear titles or degrees won in the institutions of Europe and America. European learning as directed by the Government goes back to the days of the Tokugawa Tycoons, but the University, in its present form, is an outgrowth from the school called the Daigaku Nanko, which was revived by the Imperial Government after the restoration of 1868. Besides the historical summary and the imperial ordinances, the book contains the general regulations, the schedule of studies to be pursued in the six colleges, and lists of officers, teachers, and students. At present, appointment of foreigners to positions in either of the universities is exceptional. The power of appointment rests with the presidents of the University and the directors of the schools, subject, however, to the permission of the Minister of Education. The equipment of the various museums seems to be excellent, and that in the colleges of medicine and forestry and engineering unusually fine. The list of monographs shows how profoundly interested the studious and scholarly Japanese are in both theoretical and applied science. The number of students now on the roll in the various colleges is 2,700, of whom 890 are in law, including politics, 474 in medicine, 286 in literature, 71 in science, 380 in engineering, and 264 in agriculture. Of 3,813, the actual number of graduates, 214 have deceased, leaving still a body of highly educated men to swell the grand total of Japanese trained in modern ideas and culture.

CHARLES HENRY PEARSON.

Charles Henry Pearson, Fellow of Oriel, and Education Minister in Victoria. Memorials by himself, his wife, and his friends. Edited by William Stebbing. Longmans, Green & Co. 1900.

For those who take the trouble to read this book through, and are not content just to turn over its pages in search of the few good stories and quotable opinions which it contains, it is a singularly disappointing and even irritating production. Pearson's own part of it, the account of his early life, which occupies rather more than a third of the volume, is modest in tone and well written in style; but the other chapters continually annoy one by their perpetual insistence on qualities which have to be taken for granted, because, whether it could have been helped or no, the book certainly does not succeed in making us realize them. The whole account of his Victorian career is conceived in a spirit which must be very distasteful to sensible Australians. The simple fact is, that Victoria gave Pearson the chance of political influence for which he had craved in vain in England, as well as the experience which enabled him to write his one successful book. The climate of Australia suited his health far better than that of England; and it probably saved him from total blindness. Under these circumstances, to speak of the gratitude which Victoria owed to him "for the surrender possibly of political honors at home, probably of literary renown higher even than that he acquired, certainly of ease," is more than foolish. Pearson was constitutionally unable to take his ease anywhere for long. When, after enjoying a fellowship at Oriel for a good many years, he went into residence for a time in order to be near the Bodleian, he could endure the experiment for only six months:

"The *désagréments* of college life were manifold. Talk of roughing it in the bush; I have never roughed it there as I have done at Oxford. Dirty servants, unpunctual and inattentive; an impossibility of being private in one's room, as the bedroom and pantry were approached through the sitting-room; badly cooked food; dogs forbidden; and the night made hideous with drinking-songs or practice on the piano, as the morning was with the chapel-bell. These were the prominent features of barrack life in the University."

Two years later he was invited to go to Cambridge as lecturer on Modern History at Trinity College:

"There was no want of friendly society or

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of intellectual stimulus. . . . But the work I had to do was most unsatisfactory. . . . I sickened over the drudgery of contriving answers to possible questions in the examinations. At the same time the longing for the Australian bush came over me again almost like home-sickness as I walked out day by day along the dull roads and flat fields that surround Cambridge. I began to ask myself why I should live in one of the ugliest spots on earth when I had a home in one of the prettiest."

Greater men than Pearson have had to keep their necks in the yoke of educational drudgery, and to live in uglier places than Cambridge, without having the pecuniary means to go off at any moment they pleased and take "a cottage of gentility" with "two horses, a groom, and a man."

With Pearson himself we can hardly be vexed; he was a good deal of a hypochondriac, but also a good deal of an invalid. A man at bottom of deeply religious feeling, he knew well enough that if his life had not been altogether successful, the cause was as much in himself as in external conditions. "My life has been faulty, but God will judge me by my intentions," was one of his last utterances. To the fond partiality of those dear to him any error in critical judgment may well be pardoned; but it is difficult to explain how an accomplished and experienced man of letters like Mr. Stebbing could have allowed so unsatisfactory an account of his friend to be given to the world.

Pearson's case was a typical one, and one which a master of psychological analysis, like Browning or Mr. Henry James, might have delighted to handle. He was one of those Englishmen who are cursed with a reputation for "brilliancy" at the university. They may or may not have distinguished themselves in the examinations and gained a fellowship, but their conversational powers, their ability to produce epigrams and paradoxes, have made them the centres of admiring groups of undergraduate friends, and there is thought to be no prize too great for them to aspire to in after-life. But when they get out into the world, success comes very slowly; men outstrip them in the competition who were apparently but dullards at the university, or did not go to the university at all; and, as Pearson remarks with bitterness, "rank and wealth tell for something like two-thirds in the struggle for success in the old country." If, by the time they are forty, they have not achieved distinction, they get out of humor with the world and cultivate cynicism. The case is commonly worse when the possession of a certain income has enabled them, like Pearson, to live in bachelor comfort, and to cultivate the æsthetic sense by an annual trip to the Continent; for then they receive as matters of course what other men must struggle hard to obtain.

Up to 1870 this might have seemed an adequate description of Charles Pearson. He had got his fellowship, and he had apparently some other private means; but conscientious scruples had kept him both from the legal and the clerical professions; he declined to remain in Oxford as a tutor; ill health had turned him back from a medical career; he was dissatisfied with his meagrely endowed professorship of history at King's College, London; he had done a good deal of journalistic work, and had even edited a high-class review for a year, without establishing a permanent connection with any one journal; and his historical writings, learned as they were, and deserving of esteem for industry and intelligence, had shown neither originality of thought nor force of style sufficient to catch the attention of the general public. It was really a piece of great good fortune that, at this critical point in his life, the state of his health led him to Australia. There his reputation as an Oxford scholar gave him everything in the way of opportunity that the new country had to offer. He found there was drudgery attached even to a professorship of history at the University of Melbourne, and promptly resigned; he accepted the headmastership of a college for girls, and kept it for two years and a half, until the governing body took alarm at his freely expressed views on the Victorian land question; and then at last, in 1877, he threw himself into colonial politics.

He was returned to the Assembly in 1878; was Minister without portfolio from 1880 to 1881; and a private member again till February, 1886, when he became Minister of Public Instruction. This office he held until November, 1890. During his term of administration he introduced a number of reforms into the educational system of the colony; and his enforcement, as a matter of official duty, of the secular school policy which Victoria had adopted by statute long before he entered into politics, and which even in his own judgment was somewhat too extreme, aroused the keenest opposition from the friends of denominational schools, especially the Roman Catholics and the Presbyterians. On all this part of his career the information here furnished is surprisingly meagre, and quite insufficient to enable us to estimate Pearson's services to Victorian education. It hardly seems to occur to the writer that all the reforms he ascribes to Pearson simply followed the lines of similar measures in the old country. A dozen pages of well-chosen extracts from his political speeches might with advantage have taken the place of the like amount of vague eulogy. Certainly Pearson enjoyed the feeling that he was guiding the destinies of a young nation; his high standards of personal probity and good taste must have had some influence upon the rough-and-tumble and not altogether scrupulous politicians around him. For some years his advocacy of land reform involved him and his under the ban of social ostracism by the wealthy "squatters." But this "cloud" had "lifted" long before he finally left Australia; and considering that throughout he had many warm friends among the men of highest cultivation in the colony, that he several times visited England and never lost touch with English life, the disapproval of Melbourne's social magnates affected him to a surprising extent. He was probably one of those people, and they are numerous, who are democratic in principle and aristocratic in sentiment. It is a small thing and not to be taken very seriously, but we could wish that his wife had not told us that "he never gave up his Bond Street tailor."

In 1892 Pearson withdrew from active political life, and left Australia for England, with the understanding that he should be appointed to a permanent position in London as Secretary to the Agent General for Victoria. A few months after he had entered upon his duties, he was superseded by the Victoria Government for reasons which the writers of the memoir describe as inadequate and discreditable to the politicians involved; and this blow may have contributed to hasten his death, which came in 1894, at the age of sixty-four. But before the end he had published his 'National Life and Character,' a pessimistic forecast of the future of civilization, which at once impressed the imagination of English readers. Its prophecy of the "Yellow peril" renders it even more painfully interesting to-day than it was seven years ago. The work was a great literary success, and a success of the kind that Pearson valued. At the time he died, new editions were still being called for, and the magazines had not ceased to print elaborate criticisms. His literary success cast back reflected light on his political career; his political career added to the weight of the book; and he was probably *felix opportunitate mortis*. For he had said his say and made his mark; and there is little reason to believe that he could have repeated his achievement.

In Pearson's own reminiscences there are many quotable passages, which have already been seized upon by the reviewers with little regard for the personal equation, which can never in his case be forgotten with safety. But there is one little bit of information which has not been so noticed, and which is worth citing because it pleasantly illustrates the character of a scholar who deserved well of English historical scholarship, and whose merits were shamefully overlooked in his lifetime—the late Professor Brewer. Brewer and F. D. Maurice were both professors at King's College, London, when Pearson was a student there before going up to Oxford.

"Professor Maurice was in many respects the most remarkable man King's College ever had upon its staff, and his influence over his pupils in after life was sometimes considerable. I have spoken of him as failing to command the full attention of his auditors. . . . The chief reasons were that Maurice lectured a little over our heads; that his delivery, though impressive, was rather monotonous; and that he was a little too forbearing when he ought to have been vigorous and imperative. There was certainly no conscious or unconscious desire to slight or annoy him. He was popular and respected. Still, at one time the inattention displayed at his lectures was so marked that Professor Brewer, with characteristic loyalty, came in to sit as a student and take notes, as a sign of the value he attached to Maurice's thoughts."

Studies and Appreciations. By Lewis E. Gates. Macmillan. 1900.

Professor Gates's volume of essays recommends itself at the very first glance by the unity of interest presented in its several studies; no less so, by a steady preservation of critical tone and style. The subjects of the papers fall entirely within the nineteenth century and are treated from the point of view of contemporary criticism, tacitly ignoring the *a-priori* standards of "donnish" classicism, and with extremely scanty reference to authorities prior to Lessing. Sainte-Beuve and Taine seem to have chiefly influenced Professor Gates's method; the former through the minuteness of his psychology, the latter by his care in the verification of facts, and his general positivity. In the last essay, "Impressionism and Appreciation," which, from its position in the volume, may be taken as a profession of critical convictions, the writer appears, however, not disinclined to look for assistance

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to recent attempts at constructing a scientific basis for æsthetics out of the results of experimental psychometry. Without taking too literally the phrase "weighing a fancy and measuring a motive," we may nevertheless perceive in its very substantiality some indication of the author's intellectual tendencies. One might perhaps wish to see the method applied to critics themselves; to M. Émile Hennequin, for instance, whose 'Critique Scientifique' is not unfavorably commented on by Professor Gates. Our readers will doubtless remember the grotesque inadequacy of M. Hennequin's system as shown in appended tabulations, all contributing to a studious disparagement of Hugo. Professor Gates's own directness of insight remains among the best proofs that effective criticism still demands something more than statistics and formulæ.

The two leading papers discuss the Romantic movement in England and the reaction of British common sense that followed hard upon it. It was not, however, common sense alone which triumphed; apart from the revolt of Byron and Shelley against moral ordinance, the concentrated mass of opinions held in what calls itself "society" bore down as a whole upon any expression, poetical or other, the popular dissemination and influence of which might work toward social disintegration. One has to live for some time in England in order to gauge its full force. It was largely this that drove Wordsworth into retirement, and then craftily drew him into conformity; it is chiefly this that has, in our day, isolated the lives of a great philosopher and a great poet. "The return to conventional life," which Professor Gates discerns in Carlyle, Arnold, and others of that time, signifies, in some sense, the surrender of those passionately individualistic ideals of life and art for which, through all their moral misdirection, the earlier generation made such splendid sacrifice.

The several studies in which Professor Gates treats single authors or aspects of their work are extremely thorough, as well as apt in expression. We should select, as a specific example of his best manner, the analysis of Poe's employment of terror, with the artful devices for "imposing it vibratingly on the temperament of his readers." In other cases, ampler treatment would supply what appears an omission on the essayist's part. Thus, "Nature in Tennyson's Poetry" merely hints at the conception of a reign of indifferent law which the poet found in the teachings of modern science and expressed in the ringing stanzas beginning,

> "Are God and Nature then at strife
> That Nature lends such evil dreams?"
> (*In Memoriam*, lv.)

Tennyson's own guess at the cosmic enigma shows, in its weakness, how fully he had grasped the terrifying idea which was soon to find its definitive poetical form in the verse of Leconte de Lisle. There is also something to be said concerning "the counterfeit life in 'Wuthering Heights,'" of which Rossetti declared that its scenes were laid in hell. With all allowance for the exaggeration of its character-drawing and the hardness of its outlines unrelieved by shading, Emily Brontë's novel has been held on good authority to represent, in dramatically intensified form, the utter brutality of isolated Yorkshire existence some two generations ago; it has been said to bear to the actual surroundings of the Brontës at Haworth the same relation as Dotheboys Hall to the typical Yorkshire school of its day. In connection with Hawthorne, the spirit and ethical drift of 'The Scarlet Letter' are not quite sufficiently conveyed in its brief characterization as "the Romance of Expiation against the dark, sullen background of the Puritan temperament." Whether Hawthorne was fully aware of it or not, Hester Prynne's words in chapter xvii., "The Pastor and his Parishioner," may easily be interpreted as the most subtly seductive plea for the supremacy of passion in human life that English fiction has to show; nor is this plea weakened by the gingerly evasion, on the part of most commentators, of the profoundly thrilling issue involved. "What we did," says Hester, "had a consecration of its own. We felt it so! We said so to each other! Hast thou forgotten it?" Of repentance, not a word, in spite of her seven years' suffering; for she is still ready to resume with her lover, in other climes, a life whose sole warrant is its enduring passion. Even George Sand's heroines, in their rebellion against moral dogma or code, are not more untrammelled than this outcast of Puritan rigor.

In Professor Gates's examination of the contrast between impressionism and appreciation, he very naturally favors the side to which his own applied work gives illustration and support; he argues very closely, indeed, for the preservation of a certain objectivity in the critic's attitude, which alone, as all admit, can impart to any judgment the united characters of sincerity and historical importance. His presentation of the case is strengthened by the pretensions of "impressionist" critics as soon as they make a parade of theory. The only justification of the literary existence of so-called critical impressionism is in the continually varied grace and agility of the performer, keeping us eagerly waiting for the surprise of his next jump, which absolutely precludes the repose of a theoretical didacticism. Is not this the simple explanation of the fact that all such pretty antics speedily become *vieux jeu*?

It is pleasing to note that the style of these essays makes no concession to the spirit of preciosity which beclouds so much of contemporary disquisitive prose and too often passes for originality. Happy inventiveness of phrase Professor Gates has in abundance; and, though some of his pages seem at times to suffer from clogging or retardation, through the strenuous search after expression, the reader more frequently chances to fall on such enlivening felicities as, "the God-gifted, hand-organ voice of England," applied to a verse-maker beloved of the many. Reflecting on this volume, as well as on one or two others recently issued from our institutions of learning, we have no misgivings as to the immediate future of academic criticism among us.

The Attaché at Peking. By A. B. Freeman-Mitford. Macmillan. 1900. 12mo, pp. 386.

The maker of that delightful classic, 'Tales of Old Japan,' now wise with the experience of three-score years and three, reprints the letters which he wrote from Pekin thirty-five years ago. His new volume is bound and lettered in a style uniform with his first book, and those who have the latter are sure to welcome the present. His is not "the wisdom which comes after the event," for one sees in his pages clear evidences of prophetic insight. The author, ex-member of Parliament and member of royal commissions, belongs to a literary clan, and, we might almost say, inherits his power with the pen and his mastery of good English. After education at Eton and Oxford, Mr. Mitford was for five years in the Foreign Office, and at St. Petersburg two years. He was appointed to Pekin in 1865, so that he had opportunities to study Chinese civilization—with its Mantchu annex—before going to Japan, with which country his name is usually and happily associated.

His letters describe Hong-Kong, Canton, Shanghai, Tientsin, as he saw these while in transit for the capital. Getting clear of the hideous sights and smells of the Peiho River late in May, he reached the city of dust and mud which holds the British and other legations. These, with all the other foreign official edifices, stand between the south wall of the Tartar city and that "Pink City," or imperial enclosure, into which the commonest native beggars might go, while even the foreign Ministers dared not enter. His first epistles from Pekin portray Prince Kung and other Chinese notables, both military and civilian. As the grandson of an earl and otherwise an English gentleman of the regulation pattern, he wore a monocle, and this gave the Chinese endless amusement. On the other hand, Mr. Mitford was amused at the make-up of the two mandarins whom he first met, especially the dandy Heng Chi, who wore a pearl-gray silk dress trimmed up with blue, with girdle holding fan-case, chop-stick case, and other knick-knacks, richly embroidered and mounted with seed pearls and baby-face coral. Beside his snuff-box of the finest emerald-green jade, "worth its weight in diamonds," he carried a huge silver Geneva turnip watch, which he displayed with much pride. His pipe, with its tiny silver bowl and green jade mouthpiece, was sheathed in his black-satin boot. Underneath his white cap decorated with pink coral button, peacock feather, and more green jade, were broad-rimmed silver spectacles. Heng Chi's companion, a jolly, fat old fellow, and a man of letters, had translated Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" into Chinese verse from a literal version given him by Mr. Wade.

Being a keen observer and a most charming writer, Mr. Mitford's pages are full of vivid pictures of Chinese life at the capital. As the old order changes slowly, this record seems in vividness and charm as if written yesterday. He adds notes concerning people and personages whom he met, though he does not appear to have kept up with the history of foreigners in Korea, a country which he prophesies will be owned sooner or later by Russia. Almost of equal value is his preface of sixty-four pages. In this he shows how easy it was for the Japanese to take a leap into the light, leaving the thirteenth for the nineteenth century, and to change with a skip. He adds: "It cost the Japanese no sacrifice of national pride. What they gave up was none of their own invention. The Chinese, on the other hand, have an autochthon civilization of which they are justly proud. . . . No wonder that the son of Han thinks a good many times before he will scatter his past to the four winds of heaven as the Japanese did without a sigh." Mr. Mitford argues that the Chinese mandarins have been wiser

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in their generation than the men who made the Japanese revolution of 1868, for the myriads of Chinese officials, from the highest to the lowest, are alive to the fact that their very existence depends on keeping up a constant animosity against the foreign devils. To Mr. Mitford, this is the key of the situation.

In the recent uprising he does not see the results of religious conviction, but of political antipathy. His belief is that the outbreak of fanaticism against foreigners arises not from missionary enterprise, or foreign commerce, or the opium trade, but the haunting dread of reform. "Foreign intercourse in any shape is the bugbear of the mandarin, as being the one standing danger threatening abolition of himself and his privileges, of which the two most dearly prized are robbery and cruelty." He sees no salvation for China unless the capital is removed from Pekin to Nankin, that is, nearer the centre of trade and modern activities. But this, the Mantchu dynasty knows only too well, would take the power out of the fossilized hands of the court, drive away the bats and owls of the Forbidden City, and, by bringing the viceroys and the whole descending scale of mandarins under control of an intelligible and intelligent government, put an end to the time-honored extortions and blackmail. He heartily approves of Lord Salisbury's policy, and trusts that this year may be the parent of a less ill-omened brood of horrors than the barren conquest of 1860.

A most lively and sarcastic but truthful chapter on "How Mandarins Are Made" is appended, and there is a good index.

Outline of the Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals. By Prof. Joseph Le Conte. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. Pp. 499.

Professor Le Conte has a really wonderful capacity for selecting what is interesting in science. He has done much before to entice his readers into fresh fields of knowledge; the little book before us can safely be said to have much more than the interest of the ordinary novel. It is also not at all unnecessarily technical, and the general reader will find it wholly to his taste and liking. But it is written in the first instance for the use of schools. As a school-book, it is intended, according to the preface, to follow a detailed study of certain selected types of animal life, and to precede and accompany special laboratory courses in high schools, colleges, and universities. And this is the proper use to make of the book for students who are bent upon a university course of study; but the great proportion of the reasonably well educated people of the country end with the high school, and out of the three or four selected *aperçus* of the scientific field, which is all that the high-school student has time for, a general view of the physiology and morphology of animals such as this book presents should, in the opinion of the present reviewer, certainly form one. The dictum of Hesiod, "Fools! who know not how much more the part is than the whole," was of very necessary application when the "whole" consisted in barren classification and dry catalogue of facts; but when the whole can be made, with no sacrifice of brevity, so vivid and so full of detail as it is in this book, they are fools who know not how much more comprehensible, more illuminating, the whole is than the part.

There are very many schools of the secondary grade for which human physiology constitutes the only inlook into the whole field of animate existence, and this is becoming more and more the case as the (perfectly proper) claim for some real and thorough study of literature in school is more urgently pushed. But human physiology would itself be far more intelligible if it had for a setting the long process by which the wonderful powers of the body of man have been gradually worked out; and at the same time there would be gained an acquaintance, not bald and cursory, but perfectly adequate, though condensed, of the general scheme upon which one form after another of living creature has been adapted to its environment. The great idea of Darwin is the most illuminating that man has yet contributed towards the comprehension of the universe, but we do not take full advantage of this idea in our educational scheme if we do not exhibit man as the finished product—finished for the moment—of a long series of struggles towards complexity in reaction to the forces of nature. Though the earth is not any longer, since the time of Copernicus, the centre of the universe, man is still the end-member of his long line of ascent, but his position is no less dignified, and far more interesting, if it is exhibited in connection with the successive links of the chain which connects him with his humble origin. This the book of Professor Le Conte permits to be done with great vividness and charm.

There are a few statements in Professor Le Conte's book which may be lacking in absolute accuracy, but it is impossible in a bare outline to make room for every unimportant exception to general statements. On the whole, the work is extremely well done. It is to be regretted that terms of psychological import are not used with a little more care. Thus, under the head of animal functions as distinguished from organic functions, we find enumerated "sensation and consciousness," but consciousness is properly the name for all conscious states, including states of sensation.

Professor Le Conte is far in advance of his time in his treatment of color, and has been so ever since the issue of the first edition of his little book on 'Sight,' when he already knew that the sensations of the partially color-blind are blue and yellow and nothing else, although most writers then and now (and even the Commission appointed by the British Association to inquire into the subject, within a very few years), misled by the Young-Helmholtz theory, constantly affirm that these defectives are lacking in a sense for green alone or for red alone, with no mention of what becomes, for them, of the yellow, which that theory always most unfairly ignores. It is therefore the more singular that our author does not take a more intelligent view of the means by which the eye takes cognizance of the position of points in space. If we use the language of quaternions, which is peculiarly well adapted to describe the spatial powers of the eye, we may say that the superficial extension of the retina gives us the versor element of the position of a point with reference to a fixed origin; and a combination of the feeling of convergence of the two eyes together with the feeling of duplication of images gives us its tensor element. Professor Le Conte's discussion of the latter part of the question of space-perception has long been known for its acuteness and ingenuity, but his view as to the sense-content by which we recognize the versor element of a point's position has been equally well known for its strange perverseness—the character of which this is not the place to set forth. There is room for a good discussion of this subject on the part of some psychologist in a chapter to be used as a correctional appendix to the treatment of the subject in this volume.

Professor Le Conte's book, pure science though it be, is not without an ethical import. The fundamental principle of development in the animal kingdom, as he points out, has been cephalization; the control of the bodily activities has been more and more intrusted to a central clearing-house in the brain. The work of this clearing-house has become more and more effective for the good of the organization as a whole by reason of its vast increase in complexity. The prettiest picture that the physiologists have yet given us of the progress from the lower animals to man is that furnished by Ramon y Cajal of the series of brain cells, beginning with the branchless black spot of the rat, and ending in the countless processes and endlessly interlacing collaterals and dendritic terminations of the pyramidal cells of man. The brain has been more and more fitted physically for its office as an interchange between the immensely complicated impressions received from an external world and the great variety of responses in the way of conduct which it is possible to make to them; and (whichever the order of the advance may be) man has also felt subjectively more and more the necessity of basing action upon wide-reaching considerations. In this phase of development he can now take a consciously active part. The dictum of the physiologist, at the present moment, as to the highest duty of man is, then, to *think, think, think!* Let those who feel that they have brains of but feeble calibre be content to follow in the footsteps of their fathers, but the more favorably endowed must know that their duty is to go farther and farther afield in the search for considerations to bear upon the wresting from environment of a decently happy mode of life, not only for themselves and their descendants, but for their more unhappy fellow-men as well.

Ladysmith: The Diary of a Siege. By H. W. Nevinson. New Amsterdam Book Co.

For the world at large the siege of Ladysmith is an interesting incident. For the people of England it is an historical event. In his opening chapters Mr. Nevinson sketches some of the engagements, Elands Laagte, Tinta Inyoni, and Nicholson's Nek, which preceded the 118 days' siege of Ladysmith. The scene of those trying days he pictures as "like the bottom of a frying-pan with a low rim. The fire is hot, and the sand is frying. The flat-topped hills stand round it reflecting the heat, and in the middle we are now all frying together, with sand for seasoning."

The major portion of the book takes the form of a daily record of incidents and events, the fighting, the suffering, and the ennui. It is inevitable that through any story of such an experience there must run a distinct thread of sadness and depression. This, in Mr. Nevinson's book, is partly, though not wholly, offset by a touch of quiet humor in

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the comments of the author, and by the introduction of quotations from the irrepressible "Tommy." The life of the army he illustrates by the remark made by Gen. Sir George White to his staff. "Gentlemen," said Sir George, "we have two things to do: to kill time and to kill Boers—both equally difficult."

Of the life in the bomb-proofs erected for the shelter of the townspeople, he says, at the time of their construction:

"What those homes will be like at the end of a week, I don't know. A picnic where love is may be endurable for one afternoon, where there are plenty of other people to cook and wash up. But a hungry and unclean picnic by day and night, beside a muddy river, with little to eat and no one to cook, nowhere to sleep but the rocks, and nothing to do but dodge the shells, is another story. 'I tell you what,' said a serious Tory soldier to me, 'if English people saw this sort of thing, they'd hang Chamberlain.' 'They won't hang him, but perhaps they'll make him a Lord,' I answered, and watched the women trying to keep the children decent while their husbands worked the pick."

In his details of this daily life the author is clear and graphic rather than vivid. The book interests, while it does not thrill. Wounds, disease, and death stand out in prominent display, yet the book is in no way a gruesome tale. Much of that which would so readily lend itself to a sensational style is dealt with in a decidedly matter-of-fact tone. Boer shells and whistling bullets are as the heat and rain-storms—disagreeable, but quite to be expected under the circumstances.

In the main, Mr. Nevinson's statements of the military processes are accurate. Some of his estimates of Boer losses, Boer strength, and Boer ordnance do not accord with the fuller information of later days, but they are those which were commonly accepted at that time. He is notably fair and just in his attitude towards the Boer people. Though never abating his position as an Englishman, he yet concedes something of justification for his opponents. He speaks of the war as one which will "only be remembered as the fine struggle of an untrained people for their liberty against an overwhelming power." Yet he is no pro-Boer.

The book should take its place among the best of the reports of that long and weary isolation in a place whose defence had no value save that it kept a certain force of the enemy from more active operations elsewhere. It is fittingly illustrated, and, in an appendix, offers interesting statistics of the commissariat. The Diary appeared originally in the form of letters to the London *Daily Chronicle*, for which paper Mr. Nevinson acted as special correspondent.

The Referendum in America. Together with Some Chapters on the History of the Initiative and Other Phases of Popular Government in the United States. By Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

This learned and valuable volume contains, besides the specifications of the title, a couple of chapters on "The Interplay of French and American Thought in the Eighteenth Century" and "The Downfall of Franklin's Government in Pennsylvania." To some people the last caption will be rather obscure; what is meant is the downfall of the early Pennsylvania Constitution which established a Legislature of one chamber, and which the author thinks may fairly be fathered upon Franklin, if upon any one man. We will not undertake to review the evidence which he brings forward to sustain this point, which is aside from the main purpose of the book. Concerning the Referendum and Initiative the volume gives a vast amount of useful and curious information, a great deal of it technical, so that the book is well fitted to be a legal vade-mecum of the subject, while at the same time it is not too professional for the comprehension of students.

The author points out that the principles of the Referendum and Initiative have long been embodied in American custom and law, the former being the usual means by which Constitutions and Constitutional amendments are adopted or rejected, and the latter familiar in the form of legislation based on petition. The Swiss referendum and initiative, however, are a step beyond this, and seem to be designed as a means of counteracting the corruption or folly of regular representative bodies through direct superintendence of their work by the sovereign people itself. In its complete form it involves the right on the part of the constituency to demand a popular vote on a law already passed, or to compel the Legislature to act upon a law to be introduced. In one or two Western States this system has been put on trial. There is no reason, however, to be very enthusiastic over the result, for, according to statistics here given, popular interest is but little aroused over such questions. What brings out a full vote is an election, not simple questions of policy in which the fate of individuals is not involved; so that in the end it may turn out that the referendum and the initiative, like many another mechanical corrective for misgovernment, will leave us pretty much where they found us. Of course, if the referendum and initiative really achieved what their promoters claim for them, there would be an opening for a strong argument that the representative system had had its day. If, as Rousseau thought, you can get "la haute politique" out of a group of peasants assembled under a spreading tree, it seems hardly worth while that the group should first elect a representative to make a fool of or sell himself, and then assemble again to apply its collective wisdom to the correction of his individual error.

The Expositor's Greek Testament. Edited by the Rev. W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D. Vol. II. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

The second volume of this work is a decided improvement on the first, which was noticed in the *Nation* of March 10, 1898. To be sure, it still retains the mongrel *Textus Receptus*, so called, in the post of honor at the top of the page; but the subjoined textual discussions, which in the Acts are of course especially numerous and extended, treat it with merited indifference, while Professor Findlay, who comments on the First Epistle of Corinthians, attempts to grade his textual preferences somewhat after the fashion of Griesbach; and Professor Denney, in dealing with Romans, states frankly that the text he follows is "practically that of Westcott and Hort."

But the body of the work is of a distinctly higher order than in the former volume. Of the 953 pages, more than 550 are devoted to Acts. This proportion can hardly be held to be excessive when the cardinal importance of that book for New Testament criticism is considered, and the throng of questions relating to geography, history, archæology, and textual criticism of which it is the centre. In its Introduction Professor Knowling shows himself to be familiar with the numerous books and widely scattered essays which this portion of Scripture has called out in recent years; and in the body of the commentary gives evidence also of similar wide research. His comments have, as might be expected, a decidedly conservative leaning. He is disposed, for example, to try to harmonize the two accounts of the death of Judas; regards the Pentecostal gift of tongues as the miraculous power to use foreign languages; and, on the difficult text in chapter xx., 28, inclines to the reading "church of God"—a decision he seeks to fortify by referring θεός in Romans ix., 5 to Christ, although this latter passage his collaborator joins good recent interpreters in taking as a doxology to God.

Professor Denney, in commenting on Romans, while passing somewhat airily over the delicacies of interpretation, is terse, clear-cut, and generally sensible, as his notes on iii., 25, v., 7-10, illustrate, but v., 12-20 less successfully. Professor Findlay's work, too, on I. Corinthians is not lacking in either scholarship or point. The new volume, accordingly, may expect to receive the respectful attention of students. Its easy use is embarrassed by the neglect to explain the abbreviations in which it abounds. The list given in the commentary on I. Corinthians is quite insufficient for the work as a whole. Curiously enough, the binder has stamped the back of this volume with the contents of the *first*.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. (1) The Supernatural; (2) Salvation from Sin. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents each.
Adams, C. K., and Alden, J. Representative British Orations. 4 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Each vol., $1.25.
Andersen, Hans Christian. Fairy Tales and Stories. With illustrations by Hans Tegner. Century Co. $5.
Anstey, F. The Brass Bottle. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
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